

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1880.

The Week.

THE nomination of Smyth has not been confirmed at Albany, and the temper of the Senate is such that the chances of winning over that body seem hopeless. How much this is due to his abuse of his office, and how much to his late indiscretion in packing the primaries, is not clear. Smyth's career curiously illustrates the condition of parties. He owed the postmastership at Albany to Senator Conkling, and his friendship for that great man was the only recommendation he had for appointment to the responsible and technical office of Superintendent of Insurance. The fact that he was nominated by Gov. Robinson seemed to point to a bargain between Conkling and Tilden, or the Tilden wing of the Democracy. On his trial, however, in the spring of 1878, for extorting from insurance companies the costs of inspection without audit as required by law, he was acquitted by the combined votes of Republican and Tammany Senators—an alliance which was revived last fall so successfully. His renomination now is attributed by the *Times* to the dictate of Conkling, which may be true, but should not make the public think that Cornell needed any dictating. In the meantime Smyth had become more conspicuous as a "worker" than ever, and, relying upon the autocratic power of his patron and the *Tribune's* account of the extreme youth and feebleness of the Scratchers, he went a step too far and roused something like genuine indignation "within the party."

We regret that we cannot share the *Times's* surprise at the Governor's action. "Mr. Cornell," we are told, "can no more afford to act as the political dummy of Mr. Conkling than Mr. Robinson could afford to surrender his Executive conscience into the keeping of Mr. Tilden." But, innocent and esteemed contemporary, how could Mr. Cornell have got his present office except as Mr. Conkling's dummy—the phrase was in everybody's mouth during the late canvass—and can you persuade him that that did not pay, or that he can "afford" to be anything else than subservient to the hand which made him what he is? Can you even make him forget, while reading your daily contributions to the Grant boom, that there is no essential difference between the renomination of Smyth and that of Boss Shepherd, and that a respectable daily cannot afford to condone in a President the lawlessness which it finds "disgraceful" in a Governor?

One of the immediate results of the affair has been the retirement of Mr. Charles E. Smith from the editorship of the *Albany Evening Journal*. Mr. Smith was one of the most active Conklingite "workers," and was one of the delegates chosen by the fraudulent Smyth primary meetings, but resigned some days afterwards. The paper has been for many years the central organ of the Republican managing power, whatever it might happen to be, and its defection is a somewhat serious matter. The editorship passes into the hands of Mr. George Dawson, one of the proprietors and an influential Republican, who was one of the principal speakers at the malcontent indignation meeting the other day in Albany. In the meantime the result of the Convention at Syracuse will be known before this reaches our readers, and it is not at this writing very doubtful. Three-fifths of the delegates elected are third-term men, and the only question which seems to occupy their minds just now is whether they will repeat the Pennsylvania process and "instruct" the delegation to Chicago to vote as a unit for Grant, or leave them to the guidance of their own enthusiasm when the time comes. They have clearly not much to fear by way of opposition within the party machinery. Mr. George William Curtis has been defeated

at the election of delegates on Staten island, and in his absence nobody is very likely to offer any outspoken opposition to Mr. Conkling's arrangements in the Convention. Mr. Curtis has fallen a victim to his faith in "reform within the party," to which he has held with extraordinary tenacity against the teachings of political history everywhere. The party will probably be reformed, if ever, at the polls, by crushing defeats at the hands of men who care more for ends than for means.

The object of calling the Pennsylvania and New York Conventions so early as February to prepare for the nomination in June is, of course, the obvious one of forestalling the working of popular reflection on the Grant "boom." That it will fail to accomplish its purpose we still believe. The very nature of the trick stimulates opposition to Grant, and will continue to do so between now and summer. The Germans all over the country are preparing to oppose him to a man, and though we perceive Mr. Boutwell, who apparently wants a nice, compact little party, would like to get rid of the Germans altogether, the rest of the managers will probably perceive, as time goes on, that nothing is so necessary to a party as votes, and that the Republican party has none to spare. Strong native opposition is being organized too, both in this State and Pennsylvania, and it will grow stronger, as the weeks run by, in view of the fact that there is no such dearth of unexceptionable candidates, who would see that the laws were faithfully executed and whose character is above reproach, as the Grant movement seems to assume.

We have discussed Mr. Sherman's qualifications elsewhere; but there are also Mr. Edmunds and Mr. Washburne, on whom personally there does not rest the shadow of reproach, whose associations are of the best kind, who do take an interest in national affairs, and who have had long and varied experience of public life. How is it we do not hear more of these gentlemen from the pastors and church-members who were so shocked in 1876 by Tilden's being such a bad man, and who call so much in sermons and prayers for personal purity and integrity in politicians? And suppose that, after all, the Democrats should, in a lucid interval, nominate Mr. Bayard, does anybody believe seriously that fear of the "Brigadiers" and the "Solid South" will continue strong enough to prevent his receiving the vote of a large and growing body of Republicans who are sick of trickery? Side by side with the demand for "a strong man" in the Presidency there has grown and is growing another demand, and one which has a larger future, for a man of stainless character, who keeps good company, and believes in a government of law; and it may get imperious enough to make such a candidate welcome, no matter from what party he comes. Now is the time to think of these things.

The attitude of the *Times* and *Tribune* towards the "booms" is just now an interesting subject of observation. Both are playing a very close game for the organship. The *Times* seems to have definitively taken up the Grant boom, and maintains stoutly the celebrated proposition "that if the people want him they will have him." The *Tribune* is as zealously working for Blaine, and both are exploring the country for statistics in support of the prospects of their respective candidates. If Grant should be nominated and elected the *Times* will have the organship which it held from 1868 to 1876, and the *Tribune* will be once more "independent," and thunder against "the Machine," as it did during those years. If, on the other hand, Blaine should be nominated and elected the *Tribune* would be more of an organ than ever, and the *Times* would continue to "expose" the Administration. The inconveniences of the struggle to the readers of both papers are very great, owing to the way in which it colors not only the editorial articles but the correspondence and reporting, at a time when people are more than usually

in need of real news and impartial comment. What the advantages of being "an organ" are to a well established metropolitan newspaper it is hard to say. There is probably little or no advantage in it, as regards either advertisements or circulation. There is a decided loss of real weight and influence in the long run.

The Democratic National Committee met at Washington on Monday, and selected Cincinnati as the place and June 22 as the date for the next national convention. Chicago and St. Louis were competitors, but it does not appear that the choice of Cincinnati is in any way significant. Neither did anything occur at the session to indicate the preferences of a majority of the Committee. The most unblushing moral that we have seen drawn is that of the *World*, which says "it means hard money," as a convention of sane men at Cincinnati "could no more fail to meditate the lesson taught by the defeat of Ewing in Ohio than it could fail to meditate the lesson taught by the defeat of Robinson in New York."

The Senate has done nothing during the week which would imply a greater concern for the conduct of the Government than for the coming Presidential contest. The House, on the other hand, has occupied itself still further with the rules, and Mr. Wood has reported a new bill to facilitate refunding. It has also listened with some animation to a report from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, which at the request of Mr. Acklen, of Louisiana, had been investigating the charge brought against him by a Detroit paper of having presented to the House and got printed, as if a report of that Committee, a report of his own in regard to some Nicaraguan claims he has long been pushing without success. The Committee found the charge to be true in all the essential particulars, but declined to decide upon Mr. Acklen's motives—evidently not because they were in doubt about them. The Committee on the Judiciary was instructed to renew the enquiry if necessary, and to report what action the House should take in the premises. The debate over Rule XXI. was a contention between those who wanted to remove and those who preferred to keep the power to add political legislation to appropriation bills. In the end the latter prevailed. The only speech of any length was Mr. A. H. Stephens's, deferentially allowed to pass the time-limit, and it was a manly and statesmanlike protest against the corrupt practice of attaching foreign "riders," and against that form of coercion as an attack on the veto power of the Executive.

The Refunding Bill extends the existing provisions of law to any bonds bearing more than $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest which may hereafter become redeemable. But in lieu of the bonds authorized under the various refunding acts of 1870-79 the Secretary of the Treasury may issue bonds to an amount not exceeding \$500,000,000, bearing $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest, and redeemable after twenty and payable after forty years; besides notes to the amount of \$200,000,000, bearing the same interest, and redeemable after two and payable in ten years. Of the latter, not more than \$40,000,000 shall be redeemed in one fiscal year, and they shall be redeemed by lot. Provision is also made for the exchange of outstanding bonds of a higher rate than $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for the new bonds and notes at not less than par, with an allowance for difference of interest in the two classes up to the maturing of the former. Certificates of deposit outstanding at any one time must not exceed \$50,000,000, and the interest on them is fixed at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for one year only, when the certificates shall be convertible in sums of \$50 and its multiples into the registered coupon bonds of the new issue, and, being so converted, shall be destroyed. Penalties are affixed for combining to procure these certificates for sale or as agents of others; which is futile.

As might have been expected, General Logan has come out in support of the third term, and seems to be in a nervous condition. He says "there is danger, and great danger, to be apprehended to our country in the near future." "The evidence of this has been accumulating for some time," he adds, "and thoughtful people must have observed it." Unfortunately, most thoughtful people,

when collecting evidence of "danger" ahead for our country, find the General himself one of the most alarming bits of it. That he should have got back into public life is justly regarded by thoughtful people as a very grave symptom. The remainder of his argument is that General Grant is a safe man "who wants proper laws, and, if President, we know he will execute them." Now for General B. F. Butler. What does he say? He is a thoughtful person also. In fact, we should like to hear from all the thoughtful boomsters, or such of them as are at large, on this third-term scheme.

M. de Lesseps with his family arrived here on the steamship *Colon*, on Tuesday morning, and was met at once by an invitation to a public dinner, and another to discuss the question of interoceanic canal routes with the American Society of Civil Engineers. Some doubt, which we believe has troubled the minds of several of his proposed hosts, as to whether assisting at a dinner in his honor may not impugn the Monroe Doctrine, is scarcely to be considered well founded, we should say. Whether he is right or wrong in his choice of routes across the Isthmus of Panama, and whether his preference is for European or American capital in the execution of his enterprise, makes, of course, very little difference to the reception which should be accorded him and which he will undoubtedly meet with. M. de Lesseps is certainly one of the most eminent men of the day, and as he is to the last degree a "practical" and more or less of a self-made man, he should have a warm welcome at the hands of Americans. He entered the consular service of France in 1825, and six years later became Vice-Consul in Egypt, whence he went to Rotterdam, Barcelona, Madrid, and Rome, withdrawing from the latter post into what he supposed would be "obscurity" about thirty years ago. Having, however, during his first Egyptian consulship meditated the scheme of cutting through the Isthmus of Suez, he set about executing it as early as 1852. With his triumphant success and his subsequent career, his notion of turning the desert of Sahara into an inland sea, his ship-canal through the Isthmus of Corinth, his scheme to connect southeastern Europe with India, and his Panama aspirations, every one is familiar. What will be the practical result of his visit upon his latest enterprise of course remains to be seen.

The speculative fires continue to burn brightly at the Stock Exchange, and the week witnessed a further advance in speculative stocks of 1 to 33 per cent. The money market has been made easy by the Treasury purchases of bonds, and the New York banks, while somewhat curtailing their accommodations, added about \$2,800,000 to their surplus reserve. On account of the continued large foreign imports and the check in the export movement, foreign exchange has advanced and is getting uncomfortably near to the point at which gold can be exported. In the natural course of events, however, gold should not be exported for several months, but it might suit the purposes of some of the "bears" in stocks to force shipments for effect before the close of March. General trade continues active, and in nearly every department what is called the spring business is expected to be the largest on record. In London money has been in better demand, but the discount rate is not yet up to the posted rate of the Bank of England. Silver in London declined to 52*d.* per ounce, and closed at 52*1*/*4**d.* Here the bullion value of the 412*1*/*4*-grain dollar at the close of the week was \$0.8759.

Miss Scott, a student of Girton College, England, in a recent examination on the same papers used in Cambridge University by the men for the Mathematical Tripos, has obtained marks which would have given her the eighth wranglership, were she eligible. Last year three students from Newnham Hall, the other woman's college near Cambridge, reached a first-class standard also, one in the papers of the Moral Sciences Tripos and the other two in the Historical Tripos. Miss Scott's feat in mathematics is an unprecedented one for a woman, and the only allowance to be made against her is that she is somewhat older than the successful male wranglers. The main value of the incident to the world lies in the sug-

gestion it contains that by far the most effective contributions to the solution of the "woman question" are made by women who do things, and not by women who say that women could do them if they tried. A first-rate piece of work by a woman is worth five hundred lectures maintaining that women can do first-rate work. It must be observed, too, that ever since women began to demand higher education, although there has been much serious opposition to their getting it in company with young men, there has been none to their getting it alone, and there has been from men the heartiest appreciation of all their remarkable intellectual feats. The prejudices with which Mrs. Somerville had to contend, and which were then as strong among women as among men, and had their roots largely in religious feeling, now obstruct no woman's path.

In the British House of Commons the obstructive policy which the Irish members have resumed seems not unlikely to force on a dissolution very soon. The Chancellor of the Exchequer has moved the adoption of a new rule, not unlike that which the French Chamber has had to frame to keep the Right in order. Under it a member censured by the Speaker as obstructing the business of the House will be suspended for the day, and three successive censures will lead to suspension for a week. In France, however, censure carries a pecuniary penalty through the stoppage of pay. How this will work remains to be seen, but probably effectively; but it puts the Speaker in an unenviable position. The loss of the Liverpool election by the Liberals seems now to be generally ascribed to their candidate's concessions to the Home-Rulers, which was more than many good English Liberals could stomach. But an examination of the returns after all shows that the result was really encouraging to the Liberals in spite of their defeat. In 1874 Lord Sandon, the Conservative candidate, now a member of the Cabinet, who stood at the head of the poll, had 20,206 votes; Mr. Caine, his Liberal competitor, 15,807. At this last election Mr. Whitley, the Conservative, had 26,106; Lord Ramsay, the Liberal, 23,885. So the Conservative gain was 5,900; that of the Liberals, 8,078.

On the Continent there seems to be little talked of or thought of but the probability of a great war, and this causes the coming general election in England to be looked for with unusual interest, and even anxiety. If the Tories are beaten, there is clearly an end to Jingoism, and there will probably be something in the nature of an accommodation with Russia, which will leave her freer by far for the ventures of Continental politics. An article in the *Grenzboten*, a German review, whose editor is thought to be inspired by Bismarck, has attracted a great deal of attention for its supposed expression of German solicitude about the fortunes of the Beaconsfield Ministry. It urges England to contribute to preserve the peace of Europe by guaranteeing the independence and neutrality of Belgium, Switzerland, and Luxembourg. As these things, however, seem to be in no sort of danger, the only effect of such a declaration would be to offend and alarm France, and if Bismarck had anything to do with the publication of the article this is probably all he looked for from it. The crisis is bringing Italy for similar reasons somewhat more into prominence. Her army is worth something, and she has in the *Duilio* the most formidable ironclad now afloat. So people wonder whether the visit of the Crown Prince to Rome is not made for the purpose of sounding her. But another theory of it is that it means an attempt to come to terms with the Pope. There is thus far no change in the relations of the German Government with the Church, except that the Falk laws are now administered with somewhat less rigor.

The explosion under the Czar's dining-room in the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg is the strongest proof the Nihilists have yet given of their ferocious determination and of their marvellous ingenuity. The recklessness with which the soldiers in the guard-room underneath were sacrificed is nothing new, because it was shown in the throwing of the Fieschi and Orsini bombs; but the attempt to blow up the whole imperial family at their dinner-table

is a declaration of war against a dynasty such as no conspirators or traitors have ever before made. That it should have come so near success, too, in a period of extraordinary vigilance, cannot but shake the nerves of the family, as well as of the Czar himself, to a degree which will deprive him of much of the moral support necessary to a policy of defiance and repression. If the story be true that the commandant of the palace has had a stroke of paralysis, it shows with what appalling force the blow struck the inmates. The unaccountable thing about it is, that after having failed once through haste, on the railroad near Moscow, the conspirators did not wait longer this time, as they were sure of having their prey within their reach for probably two hours. They apparently made some allowance for accidental delay, but not much. The difficulty of the Czar's position lies, first, in the danger of appearing to yield anything to men capable of employing such means of terrorizing; and, secondly, in the difficulty of knowing what, of all possible things, would satisfy them. In their manifestoes they ask for a complete revolution, or probably for a period of anarchy. The nearest they have come to a definite programme is in calling for a single assembly elected by universal suffrage and with complete power. But, then, in the absence of any organized expression of public opinion, or, one may say, of anything that can be called public opinion, there is no knowing whether such a programme would find favor with anybody but the few thousands, it may be, who are carrying on the operations against the life of the Czar and his chief officers.

The activity in extending the frontier on the side of Central Asia offers a curious contrast to the uneasiness and apparent feebleness of the central authority in St. Petersburg. A new expedition has been organized against the Tekke Turcomans, to be commanded by General Skobelev, of Plevna fame, and, besides avenging the late repulse, to obtain some foothold from which they could be permanently held in check. They are the most formidable and ferocious of the Central Asiatic tribes, and are dreaded by their brethren of the desert to such a degree that it is said the horses of the other tribes become uncontrollable when they scent in the breeze the faintest odor of the Tekke watch-fires. There is one delicate feature in the enterprise. The Tekkes frequent the Persian border of the great Khiva Desert, in which there is no real resting-place south of Khiva short of the oasis of Merv, which, however, only lies fifty miles, or about three marches, from the Afghan frontier, in the direct road to Herat, and under two hundred and fifty miles from Herat itself. The seizure of Merv would therefore seriously rouse English susceptibilities, if it did not precipitate hostilities, which the Russian Government has every wish to avoid, at least at present. One of Skobelev's recommendations for the command is said to be his willingness to undertake the job without going to Merv. In 1874 Lord Granville warned Prince Gortchakoff that the occupation of Merv might lead to serious difficulties; but to this the Prince made no definite reply. The Russian diplomatists have, however, within the present year warned Lord Dufferin that they might have to go there as a necessity for the punishment of the Tekkes. That there will be trouble about it yet is one of the most likely contingencies of the Asiatic turmoil. It is an oasis once of great fertility, and was supposed to contain 1,000,000 inhabitants in the fifteenth century. At present it has a few hundreds, and only in the spring and harvest, when the wandering Turcomans come to sow and reap and fatten their horses.

There is news from Afghanistan, in the meantime, that General Roberts has made a proposal to Mohammed Jan, looking to a settlement, which is that the British will acknowledge as Amir any sirdar or chief, with three or four exceptions, that an assembly of Afghan notables will elect; but Mohammed is said to insist on setting up Mussa Khan, Yakub's son, a child of six or seven years old, which would involve a long regency and probably much confusion. There has been no more fighting of any consequence, but the money is going fast all the same. There is also no news about the cession of Herat to Persia.

MR. SHERMAN'S STATESMANSHIP.

A CORRESPONDENT, "T. B.," makes some enquiries on another page about the history of Mr. Sherman's connection with the national finances. He assumes, apparently, forgetfulness on our part of the fact that Mr. Sherman introduced in the Senate in 1868 a bill for the consolidation of the public debt, by which he offered the holders of the earlier six per cent. bonds, which did not say specifically in what kind of money they were payable, a new five per cent. bond payable in coin, without the option of being paid off in coin. In fact, he maintained in discussing the bill that they might be paid off in greenbacks, although he admitted at the same time that the greenbacks were then payable in gold. But he had previously, in 1867, joined the late Senator Morton and Mr. B. F. Butler in maintaining not only that the bonds were legally payable in greenbacks, but that the bondholders would be perfidious and unreasonable to ask for payment in coin. In a letter written in that year, and in view of the agitation which Morton was getting up, Mr. Sherman, then chairman of the Finance Committee of the Senate, said: "I think the bondholder violates his promise when he refuses to take the same kind of money he paid for his bonds. . . . If, under the law as it stands, the bondholder can demand only the kind of money he paid, then he is a repudiator and extortioner to demand money more valuable than he gave." To appreciate all this thoroughly, it must be borne in mind that at that date the paper dollar was worth about 71 cents, and that the bondholders were not asking for payment. The bonds were not due. No question of any kind about the mode of paying them had been raised in the financial world. The whole discussion was got up by Western politicians for electioneering purposes. Mr. Sherman took a prominent part in it on the greenback side, and tried to use it to frighten the holders of the six per cent bonds into accepting a lower rate of interest, without the privilege of being paid off. It is true, he said he did not mean his consolidation bill as a threat; but his construction of the law and the surrounding circumstances made it a threat, and he did say that it would be prudent for them to accept the offer.

We commented on all this in very strong terms at the time (*Nation*, March 5, 1866), and we recurred to it January 17, 1878, and again in reviewing the volume of his selected speeches May 15, 1879. We recall it here to show that in characterizing Mr. Sherman's appearance as a Visiting Statesman we had his financial career fully in our mind. We confess, however, we are disposed to judge his financial vagaries much more leniently now than when they first appeared, because we think his subsequent career has revealed clearly enough what we may call the rationale of them. He probably became convinced at a very early period of his political career that, in order to be a statesman in the existing conditions of American society and politics, a man must stay in Congress by hook or by crook, and that he cannot stay in it by mere soundness of views, breadth of knowledge, or honesty of intention. He can only stay in it by either holding the views actually entertained by his constituents, or propounding views which they are likely to embrace with eagerness. A man who means to make politics his career, unless he comes from a small State, where the competition is small and personal weight is much felt, is therefore obliged to practise from the first the art of seeming to think the thought of the majority with more than ordinary profundity and to feel its passions with more than ordinary intensity, and of finding out beforehand what it is likely to think and feel. By far the larger proportion of those who practise this art become such adepts in it that their personality is wholly sacrificed. They sink into mere advocates. They cease to have opinions of their own on any public question. They carefully discard all passions or prejudices which the people are not likely to share, and keep far from them all knowledge which the people are not likely to appreciate or admire. The result is often in a few years a kind of atrophy of the perceptive faculty, a destruction of mental or moral initiative, and of all tastes or interests which do not bear

on the question how are nominations to be got. Along with this comes a faith in compromise which sometimes assumes the proportions of a mania. After long practice in arranging compromises in party platforms and in the division of offices the whole universe assumes the appearance of a field for compromise, and all things, human and divine, of materials for compromise. Your trained politician would never have accepted the Copernican astronomy in its entirety, but would have proposed a reconciliation of that and the old system, by which the sun would have been held to go round the earth in some years and the earth round the sun in other years.

Now, Mr. Sherman differs from a large number, we were going to say the larger number, of politicians who have managed to stay in public life through a long series of years, in this, that he has managed to maintain his individuality intact while steadily pleasing his constituents. He has devoted a considerable amount of attention to finance during the last twenty years, and has become a financier, if not of the highest order, in which Hamilton and Peel and Huskisson stand, of a high order, while at the same time making a very successful show of sharing in the various financial crazes which from time to time lay hold of the public mind, and keeping his seat in the Senate. In making the public professions which he has occasionally thought necessary to help him in his elections, he has never lost his hold on the sound doctrine which he studied in private. For sound doctrine, too, he has always shown a distinct preference whenever he could do so safely. He has it constantly in his mind, and always produces and commends it when he thinks the people are not looking, or are prepared to look favorably. If he thinks the people are likely to clamor for the payment of the bonds in greenbacks, he clamors for it too, but secretly intends that it shall never take place, and at a fitting moment produces the plan of paying them in gold. If there is a demand for unlimited silver coinage and he thinks it popular, he joins in it and says it will be a great help in resuming specie payments, while privately believing that it will hinder resumption, and intending, if possible, to have the coinage of silver limited, and when the proper time comes, to try to stop it altogether.

We have no doubt whatever that in playing this double rôle, and playing it successfully, Mr. Sherman feels that he has evolved the nearest approach to the ideal statesman which the conditions of American society will permit. We do not ourselves admire it, and when Mr. Sherman first became prominent as a financier fifteen years ago we confess we did not understand it. But we are forced to admit that to play it as he has done shows no inconsiderable force of character and strength of mental fibre. Most public men who try it fail miserably and become in a few years intellectual wrecks, like Mr. Blaine, without opinions on any question, without much interest in any question, and ready to take up any theme which seems likely to tickle the voters' fancy, talk on it for half an hour, and let it go for ever. Mr. Sherman has not succumbed in this way. He remains a distinct individuality with ideas of his own, and generally sound ones, and with a history, which fills a volume, of many years' labor on real, vital, and pressing questions in the public service, and of solid and acute contributions to the discussion of financial policy and the shaping of financial legislation. Such men are rare in public life just now—so rare that even if Mr. Sherman were a less considerable man than he is, we should feel reluctant to condemn too absolutely his peculiar mode of keeping his self in office.

The Louisiana episode in Mr. Sherman's career belongs to an entirely different category from his financial aberrations. He has held or preached no doctrine about public finance which has not been honestly held at various periods by undoubtedly honest men. The history of finance shows that it has been full of delusions, which at various periods the strongest understandings have not been able to resist. Moreover, in all democratic countries the tendency of public opinion to make representatives the mere mouthpieces or advocates of their constituencies has acquired sufficient force to make it almost as easy for a conscientious politician to preach unsound doctrine, as for a conscientious lawyer to argue in

defence of causes which in private he would condemn. Politics, in short, has become a professional pursuit, in which many men allow themselves to hold a professional as well as private opinion on the same point. But the Louisiana count raised questions on which there never has been any difference of opinion among civilized men, and which lie so near the very foundations of society that every man, no matter what his calling, must stand squarely upon them. Mr. Sherman knew when he went down there that the members of the Board were men of tainted reputation, who had been already convicted of fraud in the business of counting votes, and yet he professed in his reply to the Democratic Visiting Statesmen that he knew of no reason for watching the proceedings of the Board with special jealousy or suspicion, and when he came away from New Orleans wrote a report eulogizing them in the highest terms. He knew that the law of the State and the rules of fair play required them to have at least one Democrat in their Board, and yet he made no objection to their doing their counting and revising privately, and without any Democrat being present. He knew they were exercising judicial functions in a case of vast importance, in which their own friends were one of the parties, and that both he and they would probably profit by their decision, and he encouraged them by his presence and countenance to decide in their own favor and for his benefit. Moreover, as soon as he came North he took an office of great dignity and power, which this decision had given him, and proceeded to reward the judges by other places in the public service. Nothing can palliate this proceeding. There is no redeeming feature in it, and no one who has occasion to estimate public men or political events, be he preacher, editor, or orator, can pass it over as of small account, without proving false to the generations who will have to carry on the Government after the actors in these troubles arising out of the war have passed away.

ANOTHER ILLUSTRATION OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

THE recent proceedings by which Mr. McLean has suddenly disappeared from the Police Board, and Mr. Nichols, removed a short time since by the Mayor, with Governor Robinson's approval, has as suddenly reappeared in his place, have not aroused a widespread indignation among reformers. Indeed, it may be said that in New York they have not attracted much attention, except from Tammany and anti-Tammany politicians. There is a certain want of conclusiveness about all proceedings connected with Police Commissioners which deters thoughtful persons from giving way to their feelings on the subject of reform in the Police Board. Besides this, the enthusiasm displayed over "reform" when Mr. Cooper came into office has died out within the past few months, partly because the triumphs of reform under his leadership have been meagre, and partly because the reform offered to the public by him has been difficult to understand thoroughly. The public's knowledge of what it wants, and what it expects reformers to do for it, is generally definite enough. It wants to have the streets well cleaned and lighted and policed; it wants to have the money of the city well taken care of and economically spent, and it wants to have officials who do not do these things for it turned out of office, and others who will do them put in. But reform, as practised by Mr. Cooper, is a much less simple thing than this. It involves not merely the removal of "bad" commissioners and the appointment of "good" commissioners, but a series of very long and intricate lawsuits, with the usual accompaniments of mandamuses, injunctions, certioraris, and prohibitions, ending in a decision of the court of last resort which practically leaves the matter exactly as it was in the beginning.

Students of problems of municipal administration at a distance from New York will probably care very little whether "S. d." Nichols is or is not a Police Commissioner, but his case is in some respects a good illustration of the absurd state to which city government has by a variety of causes been brought in this city. The facts are briefly as follows: In 1873, after the Tweed exposures, a new charter was made for the city, one of the main objects of which

was to secure an efficient and honest executive. For this purpose the mayor was given the power to remove heads of departments for "cause" and after a "hearing," subject to the approval of the Governor. When the mayor preferred charges against Mr. Nichols, the latter took the ground that this provision meant that he should have a regular trial; that there should be a complaint and answer; that the accused should have an opportunity to retain counsel and be assisted by them in his defence; that he should have the right to summon his own witnesses and to cross-examine those of the other side; in short, that the whole proceeding was a judicial one, and that judicial procedure must be followed in it. It is not necessary here to rehearse all the steps which Mr. Nichols took to enforce his claim. The mayor appointed Mr. McLean in his place, and Mr. Nichols took up his case to the Court of Appeals.

Now, the Court of Appeals had already had before it a case under a similar clause of the charter relating to the Fire Department. By this clause the Fire Commissioners were empowered to remove clerks and other subordinates, with the limitation that no regular clerk or head of a bureau could be removed until he had been "informed of the cause of the proposed removal" and had had "an opportunity of making an explanation." The question before the court was as to the meaning of this clause, and it was decided that the clause meant that the "cause" must be some dereliction or neglect of duty, or incapacity, or some delinquency affecting his general character and fitness; that an "explanation" might consist either of explaining unfavorable appearances or disproving the charges, and the removal could not be made because some other man was "a better man than the accused or more congenial to the appointing or removing power." Following this decision the Court of Appeals held in Nichols's case that the proceedings by which he had been removed were illegal. At the same time, remarkable as it may seem, the question of Mr. McLean's title to the office was not involved in the proceedings, and the decision of the court did not reinstate Mr. Nichols. His actual reinstatement was effected by his seizing his old seat in the absence of McLean and getting himself "recognized" by his Republican colleagues.

We certainly do not mean to find any fault whatever with the decision of the Court of Appeals, but, taking the law to be as they lay it down, it is obvious that the provisions of the charter with regard to the removal of heads of departments are of a most farcical character. It prevents, as the Nichols case makes perfectly plain, the removal of anybody except by means of a tedious and expensive lawsuit, which would often last longer than the mayor's term of office, and which would generally end in just the way the Nichols case has ended. Indeed, it is probably safe to say that no prudent mayor will again try to exercise it: in other words, the mayor's power of removal under the charter is for all practical purposes at an end. Considering that the efforts of municipal reformers in New York and other cities have largely been devoted of late years to enlarging the power of the executive, this result would of itself be somewhat startling. But it is by no means all. If the mayor cannot remove, the heads of departments become for all practical purposes permanent officials, irremovable except by an alteration of the charter, while the mayor cannot even appoint new officials at the expiration of the old ones' terms unless he gets the consent of the Board of Aldermen. Of this difficulty the case of Police Commissioner Wheeler is a ludicrous and sufficient illustration. Mr. Wheeler's term of office has long since expired and he is merely holding over till his successor is appointed. The mayor attempted to remove him, but Mr. Wheeler ingeniously took the ground that as he was not in office he could not be removed, and obtained a writ of prohibition from Judge Van Brunt. The Board of Aldermen will not allow the mayor to appoint a successor, so Mr. Wheeler, who neither has nor pretends to have any rights to this office, is likely to remain in the enjoyment of his salary long after Mr. Cooper's mayoralty has come to an end.

There are, it should be said, two parties who are thoroughly satisfied with this state of things—Tammany Hall and the Conkling Republicans. The alliance between these two factions—

which was during the Tweed period the actual means by which the city was governed—was broken up for a few years by the rising against Tweed; but it is now as firmly established again as ever, and, through the Board of Aldermen, renders the mayor almost powerless, unless he is in sympathy with it. As the mayor cannot remove except at the end of a lawsuit in which he is more likely to be beaten than to win, and as the Board of Aldermen will not confirm his appointees until they are satisfactory to the "boys" (we believe there is not a single instance since Mr. Cooper came into office of a confirmation of any nominee of his occupying a conspicuous position in the community to a position with a salary attached to it), and an officer who "holds over" seems to have a permanent tenure of office, it follows that all the Republican and Tammany heads of departments will continue to hold office as long as the alliance between the two factions lasts. How far this permanency of tenure extends, no one seems to know. Our readers may have observed in the *Herald*, within the past month, an advertisement calling upon "all police officers removed within six years" to send in their names and addresses, apparently on the theory that all removals under the charter have been invalid, and that all removed policemen can be reinstated. The humblest policeman is just as much entitled to his mandamus or his certiorari as the proudest commissioner; but the consequences to the discipline of the force and the order of the city which might be produced by a struggle in the courts, such as is suggested by the *Herald* advertisement, can better be imagined than described. The alliance between Tammany and the Conkling "machine," it should be observed, is not fictitious and accidental, but is based on the fact that these two "machines" are the great centres of power and fountains of patronage in the city. Reformers who desire to make the mayor something more than their mere puppet will sooner or later have to recognize the fact that these "machines" must be broken up or submitted to.

LESSONS FROM THE PRUSSIAN CIVIL SERVICE.

I.

THE publication of Mr. Dorman B. Eaton's elaborate work on the history and principles of the civil service in Great Britain has called renewed attention to a reform movement which, in spite of the politicians, continues to interest the better class of thinking Americans, but which still needs, unfortunately, the stimulus of frequent discussion. Mr. Eaton is a historian in the sense with which a pregnant epigram has made us familiar. He teaches by example the true philosophy of civil administration; and although the comparative method as employed by him is peculiarly obnoxious to a certain school of patriots, it cannot be too often or too warmly commended to all who are sincerely in favor of reform. We propose, therefore, to give some account of a system which differs hardly less from that of England than from our own. We refer to Germany, or, more strictly, to Prussia.

It is not so many years since that system was the fashionable horror of Liberals all over the world. The very mildest criticism pronounced it a servile instrument of despotism; an incubus on the people and their just aspirations; a caste of bureau clerks, an aristocracy of tax-collectors, whose vulgar plebeian origin made their sway only the more vexatious and hateful to freemen. It may even be said that in the pre-constitutional days this opinion was a matter of accepted faith with all but the extreme Conservatives of Prussia. And yet to-day it is viewed with pride and admiration by Liberals and Conservatives alike. How shall this change be explained? Not certainly by any great change in the organization, the discipline, the principles of action, of the institution itself, for those are substantially what they were a century ago. Not by the example and authority of Bismarck, who has no superstitious regard for the bureaucrats, and has done little to make them popular. The true reason is rather that the former hatred of those officials and their system was an inevitable incident of the struggle for a charter, to which they, having in their own hands the legislative as well as the executive power, were of course hostile; so that after they had been vanquished and the charter had been obtained, the country was only too willing to leave them that part of their duties which more properly belonged to them, and for which they had shown themselves so remarkably competent. About their competence, their practical efficiency, no dispute had, in fact, ever been possi-

ble. The earliest state to adopt rational principles of civil administration, Prussia had an educated, trained, honest, and zealous body of public officials while France was still groaning under the *fermiers-général*, and patronage was filling the English departments with idle and profligate barnacles. If those officials also formed, as they undoubtedly did, a species of bureaucratic despotism, it was not because they were trained, or honest, or faithful; it was chiefly because, being the authors as well as the servants of the laws, they had practically usurped powers which ought not to have belonged to them, and which elevated them above all responsibility to the authority or even the opinion of the people. But after this had been corrected by the introduction of a popular legislature, the system lost its most glaring fault, while retaining nearly all its virtues.

These virtues are not less those of organization than those of practice—not less the principles on which the system is constructed than the rules according to which it acts. But of the two classes the theoretical virtues are, of course, the more important to foreign enquirers. The practical details of an institution require in the stranger who would study them a great variety of preliminary and often special knowledge, which, owing to local differences, will fail in many cases to repay the cost of acquiring it; while the original principles of life in the same institution may deserve the most careful efforts of the enquirer, and prove to be capable of universal application. In obedience to this distinction we shall, therefore, speak not of the machinery of the Prussian system, but rather of the organic and essential conditions of its being. And these, we venture to say, are directly opposite to the notion which has been formed of them by nine-tenths of all intelligent Americans.

To make this clear let us take, by way of illustration, one or two typical branches of the public service in Prussia or Germany; for instance, the postal service. Mr. Nasby has made us familiar with the interest which the politician feels in this useful department. That gentleman, as well as many of his countrymen, will, therefore, be not a little surprised to learn that in Germany postmasters are not appointed as a reward for managing caucuses, nor on the recommendation of their townsmen, nor even by a popular vote. When we add that the postmaster is not even required to be a citizen of the town where he officiates, the credulity of many readers will be violently taxed. And yet the German postal system is the most democratic in the world, for this reason: that every youth in Germany, practically speaking, may become a postmaster by his own choice—that is to say, the service is open to all those to whom the certainty of permanent employment with promotion and, on retirement, a pension, is sufficient reward for the preliminary course of study that must be pursued, and the few years during which only an extremely low rate of pay is enjoyed. The effort of the Government is, therefore, only directed to keeping a proper balance between these two factors, so that the service may always be adequately supplied. The Postmaster-General himself is a product of this system. He entered at the very lowest rank and worked his way upward to the highest station. The accomplishments of this remarkable official are not unknown even in America. He has purged the official vocabulary of foreign words; he delivered last winter a lecture on the subject full of the most curious philological learning; and at a scientific congress in Leipzig he astonished the delegates by addressing them in fluent and correct Latin. Familiar with all the most minute details of the service, he has likewise the broad, comprehensive vision which make the administrator and reformer. Not every under-official can indeed become a Stephan, for the number who can actually reach the higher posts is necessarily limited. Neither can every youth who leaves West Point become a major-general. But the chance is open to them all, and this explains in part the fidelity with which they serve as lieutenants and captains through a long series of years.

The qualifications for entry into the postal service are determined by a general law, and are such as may ordinarily be acquired by the poorest youth if he have fair natural gifts. In the case of the lower class of employees—the carriers, postilions, messengers, porters, and so forth—this is a very simple matter. They are required to be taken as a rule from a particular class of retired soldiers—the non-commissioned officers—who, according to law, have a claim to civil employment after ten years' continuous service in the army. That they have satisfactorily filled such military offices as corporal and sergeant is held to be proof that they are adapted to service in the post; but they have nevertheless to furnish evidence of sobriety, honesty, and other civic virtues. When the supply from this source does not suffice, the deficiency may be made up in other ways, but discharged soldiers are always preferred. Among the officials

proper, original appointments are made only to the lowest grade; the higher ones are filled almost exclusively by promotion. Exception might, of course, be made in the case of the postmaster-general, who, in virtue of his responsibility to Parliament, is a semi-political officer, but, as already stated, the present incumbent is no exception. The lowest grade now is open to every youth who, besides the usual testimony as to character, has the certificate of a gymnasium that he has completed his studies as far as *prima*, or through all but the last year of the course. This gives him something more than the education of our high-schools and academies—more both in depth and in breadth. On application for admission into the postal service he is taken at first as a pupil—or *Élève*, as the Germans continue to say, in spite of Dr. Stephan's horror of the use or misuse of French words—next for a time on probation in some more responsible duties, and finally, if he prove efficient, is regularly installed. To secure the just application of tests, and to prevent a youth from being exposed to favoritism, the examinations are conducted by committees, to which in some branches of the service outsiders are also attached. With good conduct and efficiency come regular promotion, and, on retirement in old age, a pension. The very low salary which is paid in the lower grades is counterbalanced, we repeat, by security of tenure, certainty of promotion, and assurance of a pension. These conditions keep the general supply of applicants about equal to the demand. When it falls short, as is the case often than the contrary, a deserving letter carrier may be promoted, or a clerk transferred from some other department.

Our second illustration shall be from a service which offers in many respects different conditions. The problem of municipal government is not the least of those which vex the minds of thinking and unthinking men in America; and it has not been wholly neglected in Prussia, as any one may see who chooses to look over the history of the many experiments that have been tried. We are willing to admit, too, that in Berlin, as in New York, these experiments have often been conceived in a sense favorable not to popular, but to personal or dynastic rule—in Berlin, to a personal king or the central government; in New York, to Tweed and Kelly, or an oligarchy like Tammany Hall. But, along with this, reform in Prussia, unlike that in New York, has aimed at and has obtained honesty, efficiency, and respectability in the administration of the cities.

A short time ago a new burgomaster was chosen in Berlin. If Mr. Nasby was amazed at the picture of a Prussian postmaster, Mr. John Kelly will rub his eyes in despair at the sight of a Prussian mayor. The burgomaster of Berlin is elected not by "the people," but by the Common Council. His term is not one year, but ten. He is not questioned about his politics; and it is a literal fact that when the late burgomaster retired to accept a cabinet seat, not a newspaper in the city could state to what party he belonged. He may be taken from any part of the kingdom, and while the successful candidate in the late election came from Breslau, his chief competitor was from Königsberg. But here freedom of choice ends and a despotic government begins to apply its fetters. The municipal council may disregard politics and geography, but it may not disregard fitness; for the law treats service in city administration as a profession, like any other, which a man can enter only after making the prescribed studies and passing a term of apprenticeship. He must know something of law, of history, of political economy; he is sure to know Latin, Greek, and philosophy; and he is likely to speak more or less fluently two or three modern languages. With all these accomplishments, however, he is not ready for appointment until he has qualified himself by general experience in the civil service, and by special discipline in municipal employment. A candidate does not spring at once from the school of probation to the mayorship of Cologne or Berlin. He becomes in the first place, perhaps, an unpaid member or attaché of the magistracy in some small city; then in a large city; next, assistant burgomaster in a small city again, and then assistant burgomaster in a larger one; and he completes his tour by the office of burgomaster in a lesser and then in a greater municipality. A slow career, indeed. It may take twenty or thirty years. But Prussian mayors are not "Bosses," do not steal, and are gentlemen.

In the early stages of the bureaucratic career, we repeat, the son of the duke and the son of the grocer may sit on the same bench. One law fixes for both the qualifications for entry and the conditions of promotion in the service, and they must be high up in the scale before their superiors presume to defy the traditions of equality and justice by discriminating in favor of one against the other. That so few grocers' sons undertake this career is owing to circumstances over which Government has no control. They may want the means to cover the long period of

necessary study and the term of probation during which they draw no pay. They are likely, too, in this enterprising age to have a spirit of speculation, which soars above the patient labor and slow progress of the civil service. But, even if these two reasons are not present, there remains a force, which may be called hereditary inertia, inclining the son to the occupation of the father, and which keeps the administration, like other trades and professions, in a certain class of families.

This is, perhaps, an unavoidable result in practice. It is a great advantage in so far as it nourishes a feeling of professional pride and class honor, which elevate the tone and increase the efficiency of the service. It becomes an evil when it generates a depressing routine at the cost of natural impulse or elastic initiative. But it is an unavoidable result, or, at least, one which could hardly be prevented by positive legislation, and is not peculiar to Prussia among countries which have a permanent civil service. Indeed, the legislation of Prussia, which on this subject consists for the most part of royal decrees issued by a simpler process than a parliamentary act, long before there was any parliament, and which, therefore, might be expected to sanction the most arbitrary and unjust practices—this legislation is conceived in a spirit extremely and almost grotesquely democratic. If the effect of laws were not subject to the eternal conditions of human nature the Prussian system would in this respect be almost perfect. It is not willing to stop even at a competitive examination, which is the favorite method in England. It does not advertise a vacancy in some department, invite candidates to present themselves, and then take the one who most satisfactorily passes the test. This is evidently the only system which we can hope to introduce in America as an improvement on the present; and it offers, perhaps, as many elements of fairness as any other that is possible under our loose and vacillating public policy. But the Prussian plan differs from this as much as an educational qualification for the suffrage differs from a qualification based on some accidental test, like height or weight. It undertakes in theory to give employment to every youth who satisfies certain conditions. What those conditions are has just been shown in outline, though the details vary greatly, of course, in the different branches of the service. The postal clerk and the inspector of mines do not need the same sort of preliminary training. But any young man who chooses to pursue the required general and special studies for his favorite branch—be it mining or posts or customs or justice—has a right to be installed in the path of regular promotion; and no discrimination can be shown against him by social, pecuniary, religious, or political tests. In short, the civil service is a profession, which a man chooses for himself as he chooses medicine or law or the ministry. Like those professions it exacts from its members a previous course of special discipline, and when that has been completed imposes no further tests except efficiency and good conduct.

THE QUEEN AND PARLIAMENT.

LONDON, Tuesday, Feb. 10.

UP to the present time Parliament has been occupied with the prologue to the political drama. The business of the piece has not really begun. The progress of the Queen to the House of Lords, the reading of the royal speech in the Lord Chancellor's Irish and not in the Queen's pure and clear English, the moving of the address to the throne and the debate upon it, have occupied one or other of the two Houses until last evening. It is difficult to conceive any ceremony much less imposing than that which is usually presented on the first day of the session. To the modern eye and mind it has something of the incongruity of a lord mayor's show. It has a mediæval and barbarous appearance. And here, slight though the occasion may be, lies one of the chief dangers to the English monarchy. It has many political advantages which are set forth in those writers on the British Constitution whose works are by courtesy assumed to be in every gentleman's library. But there is some risk of the public opening their eyes one fine morning and finding it, in some of its ceremonial and yet indispensable accompaniments, absurd. The perception that they are or are becoming ridiculous is as fatal to institutions as the feeling that they are mischievous. The sense of the ludicrous is more of a solvent than the sense of a grievance. An institution which is tolerantly laughed at is in danger of crumbling away. The English monarchy has not reached this stage at present, and may be generations or centuries distant from it. It is impossible to see further in politics than in a London fog. We may be moving to republicanism, or to the democratic Caesarism which Lord Beaconsfield has preached for half a century, and which the *Quarterly Review* has begun to advocate, or we

may remain much as we are. But the growth of simpler manners and the sense of equality make the Persian apparatus of monarchy increasingly ridiculous in the eyes of an increasing number of persons. One cannot see how or why it is that men should suddenly see that to be absurd to-day which they thought imposing or respectable yesterday. We can only say that so it is. The film drops from their eyes. The conversion to a sense of the ludicrous comes as quickly, as irresistibly, and as inexplicably as the conversion to a sense of religion. Woe to a good many respectable institutions which once were useful, and would be so still if men could only believe in them, when this mysterious illumination comes! In the House of Lords, where the Queen reads, or where the Lord Chancellor reads for her, the speech which she addresses to the Peers and to as many of the Commons as, led by the Speaker, can tumble and jostle their way to the bar, the scene, except for the brilliant dresses and often beautiful faces in the ladies' galleries, is rather foolish. Elderly gentlemen accustomed to lounge in shooting-coats, or to be spruce in evening dress, appear very ill at ease in the scarlet robes of peers, from which the modern boot and trouser incongruously creep out. They look at each other with a sniggering, half-ashamed expression. They require a stage manager. A well drilled Venetian senate of supers in "Othello" is certainly far more dignified in bearing than the assembled peers of England in their robes.

After the Queen's speech is read the two Houses adjourn till their usual hour of evening session, then to take the speech into consideration, and to adopt an address in reply. When it is practicable the address is moved, in both Houses, by new members, to whom it gives a safe opportunity for a maiden speech. In the House of Commons the mover is always a county member, or knight of the shire, as he is called, and the seconder a member for a borough. The habit of old times, when members appeared in full dress and decorations, when Lord North was "the noble lord in the blue ribbon," has disappeared; the only survival of the practice is in the usage which requires that the mover and seconder of the address shall appear either in court dress or in any military, naval, or civil uniform to which they may be entitled. The two figures, side by side, looking as if they were singled out for some marked fate, have a fantastic air among the careless costumes of modern life. Usually the debate on the address is a mere form. The mover and seconder echo the terms of the royal speech; the leader of the Opposition says a few complimentary or civil words to them, keeping clear of serious political controversy; the Ministerial leader makes such reply as may be convenient and necessary, and the Houses adjourn. This session matters have been taken more gravely, and there has been a reversion to the practice common a quarter of a century ago but exceptional now. Lord Hartington in the House of Commons, and Lord Granville and the Duke of Argyll in the Lords, sharply challenged the policy of the Government, and were as sharply replied to. The excited feeling which prevails out of doors made itself felt in both Houses on the first night. The main debate has, however, been, as you know, upon Irish distress and the Irish land system. Irish members clamor for an Irish Parliament; but they are making the British Parliament into an Irish one. Irish topics and Irish eloquence are certainly predominant in it. The debate on Mr Shaw's vote of censure, imputing to the Government negligence in dealing with Irish distress, has already occupied two nights, and will extend at least over a third.

The first day of the session has a certain interest as being the only occasion now on which the three branches of Parliament, the Crown, the Lords, and the Commons, actually meet in the same chamber. It may be considered, perhaps, a relic of the time when the Peers and Commons deliberated together, and when the king, if he chose, was present at their deliberations. In the Lords, when the separation between the two chambers took place, he sat as in his hereditary council, and he occasionally came down to the Commons to rate them. "Although, however," as Canon Stubbs remarks, "a good deal of the business of the Lords was no doubt transacted in the king's presence, mediæval history affords no instance of his visiting the House of Commons whilst they were debating." Queen Anne was the last sovereign who attended the debates of the Lords. So far has the jealousy of the Commons extended of anything like royal influence, that when the Prince Consort showed himself in the gallery of the House in 1846, the repeal of the Corn Laws being then under discussion, Lord George Bentinck and Mr. Disraeli protested in open debate against his presence as calculated to sway the deliberations of the House, by indicating the bias of the Crown. In a note which the Queen has appended to the passage of Mr. Theodore Martin's "Life of the Prince Consort" which narrates this incident the following explanation is given:

"The Prince merely went, as the Prince of Wales and the Queen's other sons do, for once to hear a fine debate, which is so useful to all princes. But this he naturally felt unable to do again." But though the Queen is not present at the debates of Parliament, she does not depend upon newspaper reports for her knowledge of what takes place there. It is the practice of the Prime Minister, or the leader of the House of Commons if the Prime Minister happens to be in the Lords, to write confidential letters to the sovereign, describing the course of discussion, indicating the views of the speakers, and signaling any remarkable feature characterizing it, such as the effective speech of a new member. There is a trace of these communications in the "Life of Lord Althorp." A note of King William IV.'s, acknowledging from Windsor Castle one of these ministerial letters, is there printed. Its concluding sentence makes it worth citing:

"WINDSOR CASTLE, June 4, 1833.

"The King has received Viscount Althorp's letter of yesterday, from which his Majesty has learnt, with much satisfaction, that Mr. Stanley's first resolution on the West India question has been carried unanimously. He rejoices that a young member has come forward in so promising a manner as Viscount Althorp states Mr. W. E. Gladstone to have done."

The practice of the Ministerial leader of the House of Commons to write to the sovereign letters of narration and comment with respect to the evening's proceedings remained in full force until the close of Mr. Gladstone's Administration. The Minister, who was supposed by lookers-on to be taking elaborate notes of an opponent's speech, was really "presenting his humble duty to her Majesty," and engaged in descriptive reporting for her benefit. When Mr. Disraeli came into office, in 1874, this system, with the Queen's approval, was modified. Viscount Barrington, M.P. for Eye and Vice-Chamberlain in the present Government, was authorized to send to the Queen a summary of the proceedings of each evening, consisting of an analytical account of the debate and of the part borne in it by the successive speakers. There is direct telegraphic communication between the House of Commons and the Queen's residences out of London, and these summaries are sent by wire up till half-past ten every evening to Balmoral, Osborne, or Windsor, as the case may be. They are understood to be perfectly impartial and colorless; the rarer and more confidential communications necessary, being kept within the hands of the Ministerial leader, reach the Queen the same evening. The arrangement enables her when she is at a distance to anticipate the morning papers. The function is a delicate one, but there is probably no one more capable of discharging it discreetly than Lord Barrington, who might probably have earned political distinction if he had not preferred, like many able men fonder of conversation than of debate, to cultivate the inner and social side of politics rather than to seek public prominence. † † †

Correspondence.

MR. SHERMAN'S FITNESS FOR THE PRESIDENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Does not this remark, in your yesterday's paper, indicate a departure from your usual judicial caution?

"The worst incident in Mr. Sherman's career is his officiating as a Visiting Statesman and whitewashing the Louisiana Returning Board."

I am not disposed to excuse or palliate this offence; and if the superlative which you used did not imply a comparison with other facts in that politician's history, I should not trouble you with this criticism. But I cannot forget, and, although the rest of the world seems to have forgotten, I should have thought the memory or pigeon-holes or scrap-book of the *Nation* would have kept at hand his extraordinary performances in the Senate at the time of the first serious attack on the public credit. The precise position which he then assumed could be stated accurately only by a reference to the *Congressional Record*; but it seems to me to be due to the cause of justice, and to the wide audience which you address, that you should recall the incident to which I refer, and reconsider your assignment of pre-eminence to the Louisiana exploit. For, really, there is something to be said by way of defence of the latter affair, however thin and feeble the defence may be; but I think the keenest sophist may be defied to invent one for the conduct of Senator Sherman on the earlier occasion. It was, in brief, an eager outrunning of what that too acute politician fancied to be a rising public sentiment in favor of a partial repudiation of the national obligations, by a forced exchange for obligations at a lower rate of interest, under the threat of payment by a flood

of depreciated greenbacks. What it was in terms and in detail will you not take an early day to set forth?

For one, I should much prefer to regard Mr. Sherman as an enduring candidate for the Presidency, for I want to vote for a Republican, and the Republicans whom I can vote for are few enough at the best. But the intelligence and capacity which Secretary Sherman has shown in dealing with financial subjects preclude any excuse for him upon the ground which has served General Grant so often—that he meant well but did not know any better; and I do not see but he must stand as an unscrupulous and not always sagacious politician, ready to anticipate the “*civium ardor prava jubentium*,” by sacrificing his country's honor and welfare before the sacrifice is really demanded.

T. B.

FEBRUARY 13, 1880.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to the article in the *Nation* of February 12 in regard to Mr. Sherman's “busily working the official machine, especially at the South, to increase his strength at the Convention,” I beg leave to enclose an article from the Cincinnati *Commercial* of this date. I do not know the writer, but he seems to confine himself to facts, and to know what he is writing about.

I am not an office-seeker or holder, never have been, and never want to be, and am as much opposed to the “machine” as you are; and if I thought John Sherman was “working the machine” to secure his nomination I would oppose him as strongly as I now favor him. It seems to me if you had substituted the word “charges” for the word “evidence” you would have come nearer the truth, and it is hardly fair for you to assume, as you do in said article, that he is “active in his own behalf.” Mr. Sherman has repeatedly denied, through newspaper correspondents, that he is using his official power in any way to secure his nomination, and, so far as I know, no proof and no evidence has been adduced to show that he is so using it.

Would it not be as well to assume, in this case as in others, that a man is innocent until he is proved guilty, and to require the opponents of Mr. Sherman to “prove” their charges as well as “make” them? You are a sincere civil-service reformer. Can you name any Secretary of the Treasury whose administration has been more efficient, honest, and economical than Mr. Sherman's; who has attended more strictly to business; who has more completely ignored claims of party; whose department has been so free from all scandals and frauds; who has been more devoted to the duties of his office, and whose private and public life for twenty-five years has been so free from all scandal and taint? And is all this to weigh for nothing against the charges of unknown correspondents of newspapers, either Republican or Democratic, which do not want to see Mr. Sherman President of the United States? This Administration may not have done all that the friends of civil-service reform desire, but it certainly has done more in that direction than any other; and, if we are to judge by results, it seems to me John Sherman is entitled to as much credit as any other member.—Yours,

ZEPH. BROWN.

CINCINNATI, February 15, 1880.

METHODISM AND “THE STRONG MAN.”

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of February 12 you have an article on “The Grant Movement Thought Out,” in which you do the “Strong Man idea” more exact justice than you seem to do some whom you name as supporting it. After describing the results of a seizure, more or less forcible, of the Administration by a Presidential candidate, you say:

“It would become apparent long before his term had expired that it would be madness to nominate anybody else to succeed him; that the public peace and safety required that he should stay in power as the only defence against anarchy; and that, in fact, he should use all the means at his disposal to secure his re-election—under the forms of law if possible; if not under the forms of law, somehow. All the best people would insist on this—the ministers of the Methodist Church, the most widely-circulated newspapers, the great bankers, the railroad men, and so on.”

Considering how remote such a contingency must be from a people who surrendered the administration of the Government into the hands of a minority whose claim to it was enforced not by the military, but by the decision of a political majority of one in a commission mutually appointed for that purpose, it would be difficult beforehand to tell exactly what justification for revolutionary measures the circumstances attending the contingency might supply. But your assertion that the “ministers of the Methodist Church” would favor the revolution you describe is evi-

dently based upon the assumption that they are now, as a fact, in favor of the Strong Man idea. Nor is your suspicion wholly destitute of foundation. The “official” press of the Methodist Church is usually much more diligent in circulating “reports” of bulldozing in the South and in arraigning the “record” of the Brigadiers in Congress than in the enforcement of the duty of obedience to law or of the principles of correct morals in national finance. Occasionally a bishop or some other dignitary gives expression to his “national” patriotism. Yet such things are far from meeting the approval of the “ministers of the Methodist Church” as a whole. From personal knowledge I assure you there is a large and increasing number of young Methodist ministers who are opposed to executive disregard of Constitutional guarantees even in the case of a “reconstructed” State; who denounce larceny even where the plunder is the electoral vote of a Southern State; and who are destined to make themselves felt in the pulpits, press, and policy of the denomination of their choice.

GEORGE M. FORTUNE.

WAVERLY, ILL.

MR. BLISS'S FAILING MEMORY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of February 12 occurs the following passage referring to some proceedings at Albany: “He issued his calls in the evening for primary meetings the next day at twelve, so that none but the forewarned faithful could get there in time—an old New York trick over which that disillusioned reformer, Mr. George Bliss, lately wept in General Arthur's bosom.”

This is another instance of the *Nation's* conspicuous inexactness. The trick referred to may be a New York one. If it is, it is an old one, for since 1870, when the present Republican organization was formed, it has been impossible to call a primary except after four days' public notice, and none has been so called or attempted. This being so, Mr. Bliss has not wept in General Arthur's bosom or elsewhere over that trick. He has sought to change what exists, not what don't exist.—Yours, etc.,

GEORGE BLISS.

UNION LEAGUE CLUB, February 17, 1880.

[Mr. Bliss's recent political sorrows can hardly have impaired his memory to such a degree as to make him forget the following passage in his letter to General Arthur, dated November 12, and published in the *New York Times* of November 26, 1879. It is true the trick he here describes is practised with regard to the meetings of the district associations, and not the primaries, but what difference does that make? It was still a trick, and a trick practised by the very men who manage the primaries upon the men who compose the primaries, and the very same trick that was practised in Albany by Smyth and his friends, and that Mr. Bliss wept over in General Arthur's bosom. We fear some of Mr. Bliss's enemies will chuckle over his producing this point with triumph, as being “just like him.”—ED. NATION.]

“Elections in the [district] associations are in many cases—in most cases where there is any contest—conducted with conspicuous unfairness. It was in evidence before the Central Committee and not denied, that last December in one association no one was allowed to enter the place of meeting unless he had a postal card with a certain stamp on it, or something of that nature, and that the ingenious plan was adopted of mailing these cards to obnoxious members from a distant postal station an hour or two before the time of the election, so that it was impossible for them to reach the members till the next day. Yet the Central Committee affirmed the validity of an election held in that way, but as a salve to its conscience ordered the Executive Committee to investigate and report on that association within sixty days. This order was made last January or February, on, I think, your motion, certainly on your assurance that it must be done. Yet that Executive Committee has never reported, never investigated, never taken any steps to do so, and I may add that few who remembered how convenient a body the Executive Committee has proved itself for the burial of matters obnoxious to the controlling powers ever expected it to report. This is a specimen trick at once of the management of many of the associations, and of the care which the Central Committee takes to keep up the forms of fairness, and at the same time not to interfere with the acts of those who subversively control these associations—‘henchmen’ I have heard them called.”

STATISTICS OF THE HARVARD DIVINITY SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I send you some statistics collected from the last Harvard Triennial, which are interesting for the light they throw upon the class of

men who seek to be taught "unsectarian theology." In order to understand them we must remember that a learned ministry is better than a half-educated one, and that a college degree is the only criterion by which the education of a large class of men like the ministry can be judged.

During the first twenty-five years (1817-41) of the school's existence, when it was clearly sectarian, 189 men graduated, all of whom but six had received a college degree. These six belonged to the classes 1829, 1830, 1831, 1832, 1833, and 1839. In the second period of twenty-five years (1842-66) there were 191 graduates, of whom 147 had received a degree.

The Triennial closes with the class of 1874. During these eight years (1867-74) 59 men came out from the school, of whom 20 had received a degree.

In the first period, then, the school may be said to have consisted entirely of college men. In the second, three men out of four had received a degree. During the last eight years we find that only one in every three has been through college. And that the proportion has grown even less appears from the statement of the President in his last report, that "the faculty has carried into practice the policy of refusing pecuniary aid to unpromising students."

About 1843 a change seems to have overtaken the school. Dividing the last thirty years (1845-74) into periods of five years each, I get the following results:

Years.	Graduates	Had received a College Degree.	Percentage.
1845-49,	13	40	four-fifths.
1850-54,	20	20	two-thirds.
1855-59,	30	30	three-fourths.
1860-64,	31	25	five-sixths.
1865-69,	32	23 (of these, 11 belonged to the two classes '55 and '66.)	five-eighths.
1870-74,	42	14	one-third.

In order to make still more plain the meaning of these figures, suppose that in each period of five years ten men had graduated; then the number of college men for each period would have been as follows: 1845-49, 8; 1850-54, 6 $\frac{2}{3}$; 1855-59, 7 $\frac{1}{2}$; 1860-64, 8 $\frac{1}{2}$; 1870-74, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$.

The Rev. F. G. Peabody, in his rather curious report on the Divinity School to the Board of Overseers, reminds us "that Harvard College was originally founded for no other purpose than the training of Christian ministers." I wished to learn what proportion of the graduates became ministers, and found this assistance: "Nomina Theologie Professorum et Ecclesiarum Pastorum literis *Italicis* imprimuntur." I did not understand for some time whether this referred to those who now are pastors of churches, or who during any period of their life had been such; but my doubts vanished when I found among the class of 1847 this name in *italics*, *Thomas-Wentworth Higginson*, Harv., 1841.

During the first twenty-five years, when all were college men, only 22 out of 189 did not become pastors, being $\frac{1}{8}$.

During the second period of twenty-five years, when there were 191 graduates, 33 never became pastors, being $\frac{1}{6}$. Of these 33, 28 had received a degree from some college; so that, out of 147, 28, or about $\frac{1}{5}$, have not become pastors; while of 44, only 5, or $\frac{1}{8}$, failed to become such.

During the last eight years, out of 59 graduates, 11 were never settled over a parish, being nearly $\frac{1}{5}$. Of these, six had been through college, so that out of 20, 6, or almost $\frac{1}{3}$, never became pastors. While from 39, 5, or $\frac{1}{8}$, simply studied theology without becoming ministers. H.

GLOUCESTER, February 19, 1880.

Notes.

THE death last week of Mr. James Lenox, in the eightieth year of his age, removes one of the most liberal of modern benefactors. For his charities alone he would be eminent, but he followed the example of Astor in founding a great public library to perpetuate his memory. That library is still sealed to the public, and it is not generally known what will be the ultimate conditions of its use; its title to rank among the foremost libraries of the world is well understood.—In the current *Library Journal* (for January), Prof. W. G. Sumner, of Yale, gives a summary critical list of books on political economy and political science "recommended for general reading, and for an introduction to special study."—We have received a well-devised little brochure called 'Suggestions for a Course of Reading, prepared for the Denver High-School.' "The work was undertaken with the belief that high-schools are largely responsible

for the character of their graduates as readers." All the books recommended are in the Public School library.—What we said the other day of the originality and intrinsic beauty of *Le Livre* will apply very well to Mr. Edward Walford's *Antiquary*, of which J. W. Bouton is the American agent. The January number is beautifully printed, and is embellished both typographically and pictorially. Amidst a variety of interesting matter we shall mention an article showing the abuses of the English franking privilege, an account of the finding of an East Indian money-cowrie in a British barrow near Land's End, a malevolent enquiry on the part of Mr. F. J. Furnivall whether any one can disprove his interpretation of *Swinburne* by *Seine's brook*, and the announcement of an Antiquary Exchange, to be conducted at the office of the journal, 62 Paternoster Row.—A kindred publication, the *Folk-Lore Journal*, edited by the Working Committee of the South African Folk-Lore Society, can now be obtained of David Nutt, 270 Strand, London, at the moderate price of six shillings for one year's subscription. It is published bi-monthly at Cape Town. The first five parts, containing one hundred and twenty-three pages, are before us; they will be found valuable not only to folk-lore students but also to philologists, for the translations in all cases are accompanied by the original text. The contents are as varied as possible, embracing tales, fables, proverbs, customs, superstitions, etc. One number is devoted to some customs of the Ovaherero—a useful contribution to the history of primitive culture. We trust the society may be encouraged in the laudable effort to preserve traditions which are already rapidly fading away before European civilization.—We have more than once alluded to the instructive series of papers on wood-engraving which have been appearing in the *Magazine of Art* (Cassell, Petter & Galpin). No. 7, printed in the February number, concludes them, and the writer, Mr. Henry Haliday, gives four very interesting examples of the result of a hearty co-operation between the designer (himself) and the engraver, in an attempt to realize such a unity of conception and execution as Bewick pre-eminently typifies.—The first number of a fantastically named paper, *Belatrasco*, edited by the Academic Department and School of Design of the University of Cincinnati, is noticeable for two "process" reproductions of pen-and-ink sketches by ladies, members of the sculpture class. They are very creditable productions.—The United States Coast Survey's latest publication is a fine quarto volume, the 'Pacific Coast Pilot: Coasts and Islands of Alaska,' second series. It is the laborious compilation of Mr. Wm. H. Dall, and contains a summary of all the meteorological data relative to Alaska up to the year 1877. Of this portion of the work we may speak hereafter. More striking to the literary eye is the second half of the volume—a partial list of charts and maps relating to Alaska and the adjacent regions, compiled by Mr. Dall and Mr. Marcus Baker (57 pages), and a partial list of books, pamphlets, papers in serial journals, etc., on the same territory, by the same compilers (151 pages). The references to Congressional Documents alone fill 16 pages. Only modesty could have called this admirable performance "partial." It would be singular if in so surprisingly large a catalogue, derived from works in so many languages, there should not be slips in the proof-reading, but such as we have observed are insignificant. The Russian titles are given in Russian characters.—A letter from Captain Goringe in the first number of the *Egyptian Gazette* (Alexandria, January 26), describes in detail the masonic symbols which he is confident he has discovered in the foundation of Cleopatra's Needle, below the pedestal. They consist of a piece of syenite granite, 42 inches square, with dressed sides and all its angles right angles, found immediately below the east angle of the pedestal, and laid in a peculiar mortar; a piece of pure soft limestone beneath, in the next layer, resting on another piece of syenite granite, also carefully squared; a third piece of the same granite peculiarly cut; and a trowel, perhaps left in place by accident. Some notches also are regarded as emblematic. All these things have been carefully noted, and can be fully studied on the re-erection of the Needle in this city.—B. Westermann & Co. send us the first number of the *Revue Égyptologique*, published by E. Leroux under the editorial conduct of MM. Brugsch, Chabas, and Revillout, of whom the first and last fill all the space.—George Routledge & Sons publish immediately 'Insects Abroad,' by the Rev. J. G. Wood. Of the 860 insects described, 600 have been figured, and engraved in view of the actual specimens.—D. Appleton & Co. announce 'Rodman the Keeper,' Southern sketches, by Constance Fenimore Woolson; and 'Recollections and Opinions of an Old Pioneer,' by Peter A. Burnett.—Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us some admirable specimens of his phototype (Albert-type) process, in the portraits of Miss Emma Thursby, Bayard Taylor, Emerson, and Henry Armit Brown.—A second edition of Von Holtzendorff's 'Wesen und

Werth der öffentlichen Meinung' has been called for and is in the press (Munich: G. Himmer).

—Neither the *Atlantic* nor *Lippincott's* for March is remarkable, and the fiction of both is, perhaps, the best part of the contents. Mr. Howells's story gets well out of comedy and plunges into melodrama with a decision which leads one to suppose him more confident of the result than at this stage the reader can be. The success of "Adam and Eve" in *Lippincott's* is by this time pretty well assured, we should say; the present instalment serves noticeably to strengthen its picturesque quality. There are various short stories in both magazines, the best of those in the *Atlantic*, perhaps, being "Accidentally Overheard," by Mr. Horace E. Scudder, and of the other collection "A Mother's Vision," in spite of its very obvious moral; "Musk and Pennyroyal," by the author of 'Signor Monaldini's Niece,' being disappointing. Mr. Charles Dudley Warner contributes to the *Atlantic* a paper on "Washington Irving," which every one will perfectly agree with, we imagine, though it is difficult to account for its exciting cause: Mr. Grant White's "English in England" and an article by Mr. F. H. Underwood on "Egypt under the Pharaohs" are interesting and something more. The number is in great part given over to brief reviews of recent books. None of the illustrated articles in *Lippincott's* are important, but we should mention "Playing a Part: A Comedy for Amateur Acting," by Mr. J. Brander Matthews, which, though it rather goes to pieces at the end, is well conceived for its purpose, and, at the outset at any rate, is a far more finished piece of literary work than is ordinarily to be looked for between magazine covers.

—The Tile Club, to begin at the beginning of *Scribner's*, is more fortunate this year in its narrative than it was last. The artistic product, too, seems to us superior, and the original idea of a twenty days' trip in a canal-boat was well justified both on the score of comfort and recreation and of professional opportunities. On the whole, we give the palm to the subject nearest home—the tow, in its various aspects, some of which are caught in a masterly manner. Mr. Burroughs's "Notes of a Walker" treat of tree-loads, spring-birds, fox and hound, weeds, and air food. He makes also a short chapter of "typical facts," of which we quote the first half: "It is a fact in the natural history of the country that, in the South, birds run more to beak and claw, and in the West to tail, than they do in the North and East." Further extracts from the Journal of the late Henry J. Raymond throw still more light on the Fredericksburg campaign and its sequel, and the editor judiciously ekes them out as well as corrects them by introducing matter new and old, including Lincoln's letter to General Hooker, a most invigorating even if, from a military point of view, a most extraordinary document. The Journal has also much to say of an apprehended intervention by France, and of Mr. Greeley's mad threats and steps to bring it about. It closes with the report of a conversation with Mr. S. L. M. Barlow which clearly foreshadowed the July riots of that year (1863). An unnamed writer, using the Rémusat and Metternich memoirs, endeavors to discredit the one by means of the other; but it seems a little unreasonable to consider the Austrian's silence about the domestic scandals of the Bonaparte family a proof that Mme. de Rémusat (who was certainly better placed to hear of them) invented them out of the whole cloth. Nor can it be said, in a conflicting sense, that these writers give us "two views of Napoleon." The caricaturist Cham is worthily commemorated and illustrated by Mr. Richard Whiteing. Mrs. Helen Jackson rehearses feelingly the wrongs of the Indians in her "Wards of the United States Government." They cannot be exaggerated; but, if they had never existed, there has not been a time from the foundation of the Republic when there was not an urgent necessity for an intelligent policy looking to the abolition of the tribal system and a fusion of the Indians, under proper safeguards, with the great body of citizens, black and white. This, more than lamenting the most recent infamy, seems to be the duty of the hour. The publishers of the magazine have prepared a surprise at the close—no less than a proposition to purchase pictures to order through their art-department, at a moderate commission.

—The greatest novelty in the March *Harper's* is the publication in the table of contents of the names of the several contributors. Much might be said in favor of the previous anonymous practice, but when once the publishers yielded to the fashion of revealing the names on the editorial extract-sheets the principle was sacrificed, and there seemed no longer any good reason for not taking the reader at once into confidence. The present number has no salient article in any other sense than comparative length. Mr. W. H. Gibson's "Winter Idyl" is the longest and artistically the most elaborate; a rhapsody in prose over the New England win-

ter of the writer's boyhood, full of observation and sympathy, and illustrated by his own graceful designs, which dispute possession of the page with the text. Half a dozen artists furnish a theme for Mr. James Jackson Jarves, in his "New School of Italian Painting and Sculpture," and he has our thanks for the admirable illustrations of which he has been the cause. They are, speaking for ourselves, vastly more instructive than the flow of sentences like this, apropos of the color of Prof. Gaetano Chierici: "Ponderously realistic, in the most matter-of-fact sense, it has no subjective, æsthetic, subduing, or subtle choice to meet the finer senses of those whose acutest enjoyment of painting lies in the suggestive mysteries and diaphanous harmonies of warm-toned colors interblending into one beautiful whole." The Far West receives the homage of three articles—Mr. Hayes's "Vacation Aspects of Colorado"; Mr. C. C. Coffin's "Wheatfields of Dakota," which offers timely confirmation of our remarks last week about the obstacles to attendance on agricultural schools; and Lieutenant Lemly's "Among the Arrapahoes," a clever character sketch, with excellent portraits after photographs. "Pinafore's Predecessor" is the title of a paper by Mr. J. Brander Matthews, but it really treats of two English comic operas, Gay's "Beggar's Opera" and Sheridan's "Duenna," and distinguishes them at the outset as being ballad-operas, or musical plays, in which the music was secondary to the prose dialogue. Mr. Matthews thinks their reproduction with the original music might be a good venture, and he gives a sample score from the "Duenna," as well as an outline of the plot. We may mention also as pleasant reading Miss Cloud's "Irish Wake"; and, as instructive, Mr. E. H. Derby's "Transportation by Railway and Canal." Dr. Samuel Sexton describes clearly the mechanism of the ear, and tells how to preserve the hearing. The poetical feature of the number is "a folk-song," "The Sifting of Peter," by Mr. Longfellow, which may be recommended to our composers. Mr. Paul Hayne's "Snow-Messengers" contains a remarkable tribute, coming from a Southern man, to Whittier.

—Three articles, comprising one-half of the *International Review* for March, deal with political subjects of present interest to Americans. The timeliest, in the sense that a short period may change the situation, is Mr. F. W. Whitridge's "A Brake on the Machine." Mr. Whitridge is a "young Scratcher," and speaks with authority, we presume; he not only admits the necessity of political organization in itself, but seeks through this means protection for those whose rights are ignored by existing machines, or, in his own words, "the mobilization of the independent vote within the ranks of the Republican party." The argument for preserving and increasing this "undeliverable" vote and using it at the polls to defeat bad nominations and so secure better ones next time, is familiar to our readers. Mr. Whitridge, however, goes further than this, and after saying that the Scratchers expect no direct representation in Conventions, seems to advise a nominating conference "prior to the National Conventions" in order to avert bad regular nominations; which appears to abandon the "reform within the party" notion. Mr. Jay's second paper on "The Roman Catholic Question" contains an excellent comparison of the public schools with the Roman Catholic, somewhat obscured by an unsympathetic, not to say prejudiced, view of the confessional and what it involves. Mr. Wm. Henry Trescott, in discussing "The Administration of Our Foreign Affairs," suggests that Congress should make a definite appropriation for the diplomatic service, and leave the details of its application to the Secretary of State, who should be held responsible for the efficiency of the service. Dr. Wm. A. Hammond's paper "On the Treatment of the Insane" maintains that we are "behind other civilized nations" in our methods of dealing with lunatics. The literary articles are a review of Dickens's Letters by Mr. John T. Morse, jr., and the first of two or more papers on Chateaubriand by M. Auguste Laugel, partly biographical and partly critical, and thoroughly charming in both style and substance.

—Mr. Joseffy, whom a sore finger had prevented from appearing in public for more than six weeks, met with a very enthusiastic welcome at the Philharmonic concert on Saturday. He had selected Chopin's Concerto in F minor, Op. 21, which he has only played here once before, and which afforded him an opportunity of displaying his best qualities to the fullest advantage. Grandeur of conception and power of execution are not Mr. Joseffy's strongest points; he is most at home in the lyric and romantic style of the modern school, and in the Chopin concerto there is lyric and romance to overflowing. It was particularly in the second and third movement that the warm and sympathetic touch, the thoroughly artistic phrasing, the absolutely faultless technique of the Hungarian virtuoso were most strikingly displayed. The immense difficulties of the

last movement were rendered with an ease and grace, with a comfortable confidence in the performer's own powers, that were truly admirable. Mr. Joseffy was recalled five or six times, and in response to the unceasing applause he played Liszt's Hungarian Fantaisie, a composition of such length and difficulties that many an ambitious artist has set it down as the *pièce de résistance* of his repertory. Mr. Joseffy played it on Saturday, after the exhaustive Chopin concerto, as if it were some pretty drawing-room composition. Altogether he obtained the most complete success he has had since his arrival in New York. The orchestral numbers were an adagio and fugue in C minor, by Mozart, originally written for string quartet, but most effectively adapted for a string orchestra and admirably rendered by Mr. Thomas; Beethoven's Fourth Symphony, in B flat; and lastly Wagner's mighty Introduction to "Tristan und Isolde," which was of wonderful effect, with its ponderous Teutonic phrases, after the graceful melodies and harmonies of Liszt and Chopin. All these orchestral numbers have been played again and again under Mr. Thomas's direction, and it is sufficient to say that they were given on Saturday with characteristic vigor and purity of taste.

—Within the past few months the German Government has obtained possession of a treasure so great that we can only see in it, as suggested by a German writer, a free gift of the Olympian gods in return for four years of disinterested excavation at Olympia. Some time since a number of massive reliefs, partly lying under ground, partly built into a wall for the defence of the city, were discovered at Pergamus. Through Herr Humann, a German engineer established at Smyrna, several specimens were sent to the German Government; Professor Conze visited the spot, and the Pasha was induced for less than the price of one modern statue to part with the right of excavation. The pieces of sculpture are at present in the east wing of the Berlin Museum, where twice a week they are open to inspection. Some of the Pergamus reliefs are still in the boxes in which they were packed, and from which the covers alone have been removed; most, however, are lying upon the floor. All are dirty and embrowned, and look more like coarse stone than like marble, except where the workmen with brush and delicate chisel have removed the mould of ages, and the pure marble shines through like the dawn. Everywhere are gods and goddesses, giants and winged daemons. Of these giants, some stand armed with uprooted trees, others are hurling masses of rock; an eagle and a serpent are in mortal combat; assisted by a great hound, a goddess has overthrown a demon; in the midst a woman of grand proportions seems rising from the earth.

—Pergamus was one of the wealthiest cities of Asia Minor. Into the hands of its royal dynasty fell the treasure amassed by Lysimachus, one of Alexander's generals. To Horace, two hundred years later, the name of Attalus, King of Pergamus, was synonymous with wealth. This Attalus turned to art for the commemoration of his victories. Pliny ('Naturalis Historia,' 34, 84) says that several sculptors, among them Isigonus, Pyronachus, Stratoniceus, and Antigonus executed his and Eumenes's battles against the Gauls. Further, Pausanias (1, 25) saw on the Acropolis of Athens a memorial dedicated by this same Attalus in gratitude for this great victory. It consisted of four groups of statues—the victory of the gods over the giants, Theseus's defeat of the Amazons, the battle at Marathon, and Attalus's slaughter of the Gauls. The base, or probably a portion of the base of this memorial, fifty feet long by sixteen broad, was discovered by Bötticher on the south side of the Acropolis, and a number of the separate figures, supposed to have belonged to these groups, have been found in different collections in Europe; among them a series of prostrate or dying Gauls, remarkable for the admirable, realistic manner in which the barbarian traits and features are rendered. The "Dying Gladiator," as well as the so-called "Arria and Patus," in the Villa Ludovici, have both been proved to be the works of Pergamene artists. Up to the date of the recent German excavations this was all that was known of the school. German research has failed to discover more than one *locum classicum* bearing upon these sculptures. Ampelius, an obscure writer of the third century after Christ, in his 'Liber Memorialis,' while enumerating the wonders of the world, mentions at Pergamus a marble altar forty feet high, on which was sculptured a battle of giants. The Pergamus frieze undoubtedly answers to this description, and was probably executed in the time of Attalus, between 240 and 197 B.C. The collective sculptures represent the giants storming Olympus. Each of the groups portrays a moment in the struggle. Of one of the best preserved groups Zeus forms the centre; his mantle thrown over one shoulder leaves bare the upper part of his body, which is treated with the utmost nobleness. An eagle

is bringing him a thunderbolt to replace the one with which he has just overthrown a prostrate giant, while two more are struggling forward. In his left hand he holds the ægis. Upon a second block a goddess struggles with a giant, while directly behind her, facing in the opposite direction, another goddess armed with a torch carries on a similar contest. Athena with the ægis forms the centre of a third group. She has overthrown a winged demon, while another, whose face greatly resembles that of the Laocöon, sinks at her feet in the coils of her serpent. A third giant is attacking her, but Nike, the goddess of victory, is already reaching her the crown. The female form rising from the ground is Ge, Earth, mourning over the destruction of the giants, her children. Many of these giants are wild men with animal heads; some, except for superhuman force, are sculptured like men armed with weapons; yet others have trees and masses of rock; and a fourth kind are portrayed as winged beings. The heads of Zeus, Apollo, Athena, and Artemis are as yet most unfortunately missing. The German Government proposes to clean and reconstruct the entire frieze, which is now lying in single disconnected blocks. The cleaning proceeds under the eyes of the visitor; the tables and floors are piled with unsorted fragments—among them a beautiful woman's head of finer marble than the rest, with an ineffable smile on the finely-chiselled lips. It is hoped that the two best preserved groups—those of Zeus and Athena—will be ready for exhibition in February.

—The year 1879 was not rich in historical literature, although it produced some works of permanent value. In ancient history we have Froude's 'Cæsar,' the fifth volume of Ihne's 'Römische Geschichte,' reaching the close of Sulla's career, and the sixth volume of Duruy's 'Histoire de Rome,' coming down to the reign of Diocletian. Busolt's 'Die Lakedaimonier und ihre Bundesgenossen,' of which the first volume extends to the establishment of the naval hegemony of Athens, is pronounced a work of substantial value. Beesly's 'Gracchi, Marius, and Sulla' deserves notice as a work of original and independent power. Mommsen has also issued a second volume of his 'Römische Forschungen.' In mediæval history there have been several valuable publications. Perrens's 'History of Florence' has a fourth volume embracing the period from 1313 to 1358. Sigmund Riezler, author of the admirable 'Literarische Widersacher der Päpste,' has published the first volume of a history of Bavaria in the Heeren, Ukert, and Giesebrecht series, coming down to the year 1180. The Danish historian, Steenstrup, whose history of the Normans attracted a good deal of attention two years ago, has issued a second volume upon the expeditions of the vikings in the ninth century. The publication of the French mediæval historians has been resumed in Paris, and M. Paulin Paris has undertaken to edit William of Tyre and his continuators. We may mention also the 'Early Chroniclers of Europe,' published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, of which France, by Gustave Masson, and England, by James Gairdner, have already been published. Mr. Bigelow's 'Placita Anglo-Normannica,' dealing primarily with the history of law, contains much valuable material for constitutional history. The new volume of Freeman's 'Historical Essays' belongs to the early middle ages, as does 'Deutsche Urzeit,' by Arnold, the historian of the German municipal constitution.

—In modern history the veteran Ranke has published, as the forty-second volume of his collected works, 'Zur venezianischen Geschichte,' consisting largely of new matter. The third volume of Gindely's 'Geschichte des dreissigjährigen Kriegs' completes the so-called "Bohemian War"; this is a contribution of the first importance to the history of that period. Baird's 'Rise of the Huguenots' is almost the only American history of independent merit published during the year. The translation of Rambaud's 'History of Russia' is a welcome addition to our libraries; it is to be wished that a competent translator would undertake Vulliamin's 'Histoire de Suisse.' For the history of the present century Treitschke's 'Deutsche Geschichte im neunzehnten Jahrhundert' (vol. i., reaching to November, 1815), and Hillebrand's 'France' (vol. ii., covering the period of parliamentary monarchy from 1837 to 1848), both belonging to the series of 'Staatsgeschichte der neuesten Zeit,' are the most important. Seeley's 'Life of Stein' also belongs here, as do the 'Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat.' In American history the translation of the second volume of Von Holst's 'Constitutional History' is perhaps the only work of high importance. Hearn's 'Aryan Family' is a significant contribution to the history of primitive institutions, and Tourmagne's 'Histoire du Servage' and Inama-Sternegg's 'Deutsche Wirthschaftsgeschichte' to industrial history.

—No one of the great modern writers is so little known personally as the author of 'The Betrothed.' This is partly due to his uneventful life

and partly to an almost morbid shrinking from publicity, which, among other things, has deprived his friends of any satisfactory portrait of him. Since Manzoni's death a host of biographies has appeared, most of them in the form of memorial addresses, and but few possessed of any lasting value. When Professor Angelo de Gubernatis was invited to deliver a course of lectures in the Tylor Institute at Oxford, in May, 1878, in selecting as his subject Manzoni he chose a theme more novel than it seemed. These lectures have since been amplified and published under the title: 'Alessandro Manzoni: Studio biografico' (Florence, 1879). The work is a careful study of Manzoni's literary development, patiently traced through his works, edited and inedited, until his activity as an author practically ceased with the publication of the 'Promessi Sposi' in 185. There is but little new material in the volume, and we catch only a slight glimpse of Manzoni in his social and family relations. That slight glimpse, however, is very attractive, and makes us regret the secluded life which his diffidence and the political condition of his country caused him to lead so long. It is to be hoped that Professor De Gubernatis's sketch will lead the way to a fuller biography, and revive in England and this country the interest in Manzoni, whose greatness as a poet, novelist, and man will grow the more thoroughly he is studied and known.

SEWALL'S DIARY.*

SEWALL'S 'Diary' increases in interest as it proceeds. Indeed, taking into consideration the writer's field of observation, its remoteness from the world's great theatres of action, its smallness and its intense provincialism—taking these things into consideration, if there is anything better in their peculiar line than these volumes we have yet to meet it. They do not, it is true, deal with great historical personages or events; Gov. Joseph Dudley does not fill the place of Charles II.; nor was "Boston's greatest Fire," whereby on November 27, 1676, "about fifty Landlords were despoiled of their Housing. N.B. The House of the Man of God, Mr. Mather, and Gods House were burnt with fire"—not even this conflagration was at all equal in interest to the London fire of September ten years previous; nor are the futile expeditions of Queen Anne's War like the naval engagements of Van Tromp and De Ruyter. This, however, is merely saying that Boston of 1710 was not London of 1666, and that Judge Sewall did not have the incidents to describe which fell in the way of Secretary Pepys. So far, however, as glimpses of life and manners are concerned—the revival of a buried past, with its lights and its shadows—Sewall is hardly inferior to Pepys. It is the touch of nature again; and, though the nature and social existence revealed may not be very inviting, it is none the less genuine. It is like an engraving of Hogarth or a chapter of Fielding.

The present volume covers the period from 1699 to 1714, and from the forty-seventh to the sixty-second year of the diarist's life. In a public point of view it includes the whole of Queen Anne's War, marked as it was for New England by a succession of bloody Indian forays upon the unprotected settlements of the northern frontier, and the abortive retaliatory expeditions against Canada. During this time, and until his death in March, 1701, the Earl of Bellomont was governor of the province. He, in 1702, was succeeded by Sewall's connection by marriage, the able, versatile, and choleric Joseph Dudley.

Turning, however, at once from the historical to the social side of the diary, it must be conceded that the life of Puritan New England depicted in it is far from inviting. Indeed, it is not too much to say that it is repellent to the last degree. It is all shadow. Without literature, without art, without gaiety even, it seems to have been made up of toil and theology and funerals. It was the stern, hard existence of a peculiar people, intent on two things—religion and thrift. Struggling as they did unceasingly with a barren soil and a rugged climate, it was with them one long, hard fight, and it probably required exactly such a people as they were to face that fight and to achieve out of it the magnificent intellectual and material success they did. These volumes, however, open the workshop to us, and reveal the joyless existence of those days of little things. We have just said that the life seems to have been made up of toil, theology, and funerals. How shut off it was from the whole outer world may be realized from the fact that when Lord Bellomont was appointed governor he was some five months crossing the Atlantic, having ventured upon a winter passage. He died in New York on the 5th of March,

1701, and this entry of Sewall's shows how rapidly and by what means state news of the first importance passed between the two cities:

"Saturday, March 15 [1701]. The town is fill'd with the News of my Ld. Bellomont's death, last Wednesday was seignit. The Thursday after, a Sloop set sail from N. York to Say-Brook; Mr. Clark, a magistrate, carries it to New-London: from thence Mr. Southmayd brought it by Land last night, Capt. Belchar acquainted Mr. Secretary with it about 9 a'clock last night."

Such were the means of communication between Boston and New York. Those between Boston and the neighboring towns of Cambridge and Charlestown seem to have been hardly better, and by no means devoid of danger. The following incident, which happened to the wife and children of the vice-president of the college, should give to modern Cambridge professors a realizing sense of the combined comfort and safety of even street-railway travel:

"February 22 [1701]. Mrs Willard and several of her children had like to have been cast away coming from Cambridge by Water, wind was so very high; put ashore at last on Muddy River Marsh: Got to the Gov^t by that time twas dark."

Mrs. Willard was Governor Dudley's sister, and it was not long before his Excellency himself had an experience of the dangers of land (to offset his sister's of water) travel, between the two places:

"January 19, 1701. The Gov^t coming to Town, the way being difficult by Parks of Snow, his Slay was turn'd upon one side against the Fence next Cambridge, and all in it thrown out, Governor's Wigg thrown off, his head had some hurt; and my Son's Elbow. The Horses went away with the foundation and left the Superstructure of the Slay and the Riders behind."

Meanwhile the following little episode of travel had, only a single week before, enlivened a trip of the Governor's from Charlestown across to Boston:

"Thursday, Jan'y 11 [1701]. The Gov^t and his Lady essaying to come from Charlestown to Boston in their Slay, 4 Horses, two Troopers riding before them, First the Troopers fell into the water, and then the Gov^t making a stand, his four Horses fell in, and the Two Horses behind were drown'd, the Slay pressing them down. . . . 'Tis a wonderful mercy that the Gov^t, his Lady, Driver, Postilion, Troopers escaped all safe."

Secluded from the great outer world and buried beneath the ice and snow of a New England winter, it was small wonder that a kindhearted man like Sewall hailed with delight and recorded every indication of the approach of even the bleak and fitful spring peculiar to that region. There is something quite touching in such records as these:

"March 16 1701. Though all things look horribly winterly by reason of a great storm of Snow, hardly yet over, and much on the Ground; yet the Robbins cheerfully utter their Notes this morn. So should we patiently and cheerfully sing the Praises of God, and hope in his Mercys, though Storm'd by the last efforts of Antichrist."

"Feb. 24 [1701]. Singing of Birds is come"

"Febr. 10 [1701]. A pleasant, Serene, sun-shiny Day; sweet singing of Birds."

"Sixth-day, April 11 [1712] I saw Six Swallows together flying and chirping very rapturously."

The first of these records affords a very good illustration of those religious lessons, or morals, which the Puritan never failed to draw from every event, even the most ordinary. Everywhere and in all things he saw the immediate finger of the Lord, or a reminder of His written word. The following instance of this occurred in the first volume of the Diary, and is too delightfully characteristic not to be quoted. The child referred to in it as "seeking to shadow and hide himself" was his son Joseph, then aged four years and two months:

"Nov. 6 [1692]. Joseph threw a knop of Brass and hit his Sister Betty on the forehead so as to make it bleed and swell; upon which, and for his playing at Prayer-time, and eating when Return Thanks, I whipp'd him pretty smartly. When I first went in (call'd by his Grandmother) he sought to shadow and hide himself from me behind the head of the Cradle; which gave me the sorrowfull remembrance of Adam's carriage."

The most thoroughly characteristic incident of this sort, however—and, indeed, it may fairly be said the most characteristic incident of the whole publication—the editors have thought proper to omit, as being "unsuitable for publication" (p. 157). Considering what every reader meets as a matter of course not only in the sacred writings, but in the unexpurgated editions of nearly every classic writer, and Shakspeare particularly, it is would seem to be, in the case of a work published more especially for students of history, a somewhat unnecessary degree of delicacy.

We have remarked that the Puritan life was made up largely of theology and funerals. To the reader of the present day these volumes, as will presently appear, are made ghastly by the writer's frequent attend-

* Diary of Samuel Sewall. 1674-1729. Vol. II. 1699-1700-1714. Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. VI. Fifth Series. [See Nation, Nos. 696 and 697.]

ance at the latter, while as to theology the glimpses we get at the Judge's library are such as would make a resort to a volume of Coke or Hailes a positive relaxation. The work he mentions with most affection as one which he had "enjoy'd one and Thirty years" is Pole's "Synopsis Criticorum." Then we have mention of Calvin's "Exposition," choice excerpts from which, and from Caryl's "Exposition of Job," he painfully copies out and sends to sick neighbors to comfort their dying moments; while he makes a present of Dr. Mather's "Treatise on Tithes" to a lad who comes to notify him of a funeral, bringing the usual mourning gloves. Then we have Rivet's works, and Cotton Mather's "Theopolis Americana," while copies of Mr. Higginson's Election Sermon and of a work called "Greek Churches" he kept on hand and distributed as presents among his female acquaintance. Of but one familiar name among the profane writers whom posterity has seen fit to remember, while for ever forgetting Pole and Rivet and Caryl, do we get even a glimpse; but then his note bursts in upon us with all the effect of a gleam of sunshine through December's gloom. It happened thus: The Judge was on his way to Narragansett and stopped to dine at a tavern; picking up a chance volume, and being himself in Puritanic way something of a poet, what he there saw seems to have pleased him so much that he copied it in his diary:

"Sept. 16 [1706]. . . . While Diſner was getting ready I read in Ben Johnson, a Folio:

'Wake, our Mirth begins to dye:
Quicken it with Tunes and Wine.
Raise your Notes; you'r out; ſie, ſie,
This drowſineſs is an ill ſign.
We banish him the Quire of Gods
That droops agen:
Then all are men,
For here's not one but nods.'"

Naturally church going, the Sabbath-day and private meeting are prominent features in the Diary and constant matters of record. We get, also, glimpses of all the eminent New England divines of that day; as a whole a devout and conscientious race, though long-winded in discourse and prayer to a degree which the present generation would find it hard to endure silently. For instance, frequent mention is made of the venerable Samuel Torrey, of Weymouth, and Eliot is our authority for saying that this divine "had such a gift in prayer that he was always chosen, as Mr. Prince tells us, 'to bring up the rear of their religious exercises.' Upon a public fast in the year 1696, he prayed two hours after all the other exercises were over. . . ." Nor was Judge Sewall himself behindhand in respect to this gift, and he himself has recorded that once in his younger days, while his calling was yet undecided, he held forth to the Newbury congregation, and "being afraid to look on the [hour] glass: ignorantly and unwillingly I stood two hours and a half" (vol. i. p. 1). As he grew older his power in prayer, at least, would seem to have in no way diminished, if we may judge by an entry in the present volume recording one of his self-imposed, private fast-days. It is somewhat long, but it is instructive and well worth reading, as showing the real living depth and strength of that Puritan faith which has made Massachusetts what she is. A more comprehensive petition, including, as it does, "Asia, Africa, Europe, and America," could hardly be offered up:

"The Apointment of a Judge for the Super. Court being to be made upon next Fifth day, Febr. 12, I pray'd God to Accept me in keeping a privat day of Prayer with Fasting for That and other Important Matters: I kept it upon the Third day Febr. 10, 1703 in the upper Chamber at the North-East end of the House, fastening the Shutters next the Street.— Perfect what is lacking in my Faith, and in the faith of my dear Yokefellow. Convert my children; especially Samuel and Hañah; Provide Rest and Settlement for Hañah: Recover Mary, Save Judith, Elizabeth and Joseph: Requite the Labour of Love of my Kinswoman Jane Tappin. Give her health, find out Rest for her. Make David a man after thy own heart, Let Susan live and be baptised with the Holy Ghost, and with fire. Relations. Steer the Government in this difficult time, when the Governour and many others are at so much Variance: Direct, incline, overrule on the Council-day fifth-day, Febr. 12, as to the special Work of it in filling the Super. Court with Justices; or any other thing of like nature; as Plim' infer Court. Bless the Company for propagation of the Gospel, especiall Gov' Ashurst &c. Revive the Business of Religion at Natick, and accept and bless John Neesnumin who went thither last week for that end. Mr. Rawson at Nantucker. Bless the South Church in preserving and spiriting our Pastor; in directing unto suitable Supply, and making the Church unanimous: Save the Town, College; Province from Invasion of Enemies, open, Secret, and from false Brethren: Defend the Purity of Worship. Save Connecticut, bless their New Governour: Save the Reformation under N. York Governmt. Reform all the European Plantations in America: Spanish, Portuguese, English, French, Dutch; Save this New World, that where Sin hath abounded, Grace may Superabound; that CHRIST who is stronger, would bind the strong man and spoil his house; and order the Word to be given, Balyon is fallen.—Save our Queen.

lengthen out her Life and Reign. Save France, make the Proud helper stoop [Job. IX. 13]. Save all Europe: Save Asia, Africa, Europe and America. These were gen'l heads of my Meditation and prayer; and through the bounteous Grace of GOD, I had a very Comfortable day of it. The reading of Mr. Tho. Horton's Sermon upon a Monthly Fast, before the House of Lords x. 20 1646, was a great furtherance of me, which was hapily put into my hand by Major Walley the latter end of last Moneth."

DOWDEN'S SOUTHEY*

THERE have been few English men of letters the difference between whose contemporary and posthumous fame is so great as it is in the case of Southey. He was not, indeed, idolized by his time, and his works have not, to be sure, fallen into complete oblivion, though they avoid that fate by the narrowest of margins, we suspect. Macaulay said of them that he had great doubts whether they would be read "fifty years hence," but none at all that, if read, they would be admired; but the truth is that they are not read now because it has been discovered that they are not upon the whole admirable. "In the combat between Time and Thalaba I suspect the former destroyer has conquered; Kehama's curse frightens very few readers now," said Thackeray, twenty years ago. They are in truth hard reading, as any one may prove to his thorough satisfaction by turning to them; and they are hard reading not because the present generation has its own standards, very different from those of the Georgian era, but because they are in themselves quite lifeless, and, from an intellectual point of view, absolutely artificial. But to have told any of his contemporaries that Southey would so soon cease to be a classic, or, better, that he never would become one, would have been to invite certain ridicule. Wordsworth and Coleridge and Lamb sang his praises; Pitt sat up nights to read his blank verse; Landor thought him a literary giant; the *Quarterly* was almost as much identified with him as it was with Gifford; the best men of his time thought themselves honored by his approval. Even Byron, who devoted to him some of the most memorable of the lines in his earliest satire—

"But if, in spite of all the world can say,
Thou still wilt verseward plod thy weary way,

The babe unborn thy dread intent may rue:
'God help thee,' Southey, and thy readers too!"

and who remarked, "To have that poet's head and shoulders I would almost have written his Sapphics," called him "the only existing entire man of letters," pronounced his prose "perfect" and certain passages of his poetry "equal to anything." All of which sounds curiously now, but is worth calling to mind for its illustration of the condition of literary criticism in England in the epoch immediately preceding our own. The eighteenth century had performed its work of "the formation of English prose," as a distinguished critic has pointed out; periodical literature of a high order was beginning its career; the nation had a heritage of poetry unrivalled by that of any other country; Byron, Keats, Shelley, Wordsworth, and Coleridge were writing or about to write; and yet so strongly did the spirit of what Matthew Arnold calls "our provincial and second-rate literature of the eighteenth century" pervade the great literary outpouring at the beginning of our own era, that in criticism stock notions and traditional habits of thought went wholly unrevised by either acute analysis or a broad culture. As late as when Macaulay wrote it was the audacity of his paradoxes that surprised his readers and created his audience, whereas now we presume it would be safe to say that what offends nine people out of ten in him is the arrogant elaborateness with which he argues what is elementary. To the first readers of the essay on Milton we suspect what sound criticism it contains came like a revelation; if it sounds like platitude now it is perhaps because we are farther away from Johnson's "Surely no man could have fancied that he read 'Lycidas' with pleasure had he not known the author" than were the subscribers to the *Edinburgh Review* in 1825.

Farther back than this, criticism was proportionately more superficial. An ardent disciple of Wordsworth, to whom Wordsworth was "a great critic," notes the vital fact concerning the poetry of both Wordsworth and Byron in saying that much of it had its source "in a great movement of feeling, not in a great movement of mind." *A fortiori*, this applies to the criticism in vogue at the time when Southey succeeded to the laureateship left vacant by the lamented Pye. It does not so much matter that much of it was mere polemics, that a

* "English Men of Letters. Edited by John Morley. Southey. By Edward Dowden. London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.

Whig author was certain to be damned by the *Quarterly* and lauded by the *Edinburgh*, that the century of Pope had fixed canons by which Keats was to be judged, that Jeffrey's judgment of 'The Excursion' was overruled by better judges, who ended by convincing every one that it "would do," as that the whole literary movement, in so far as it was national, was more or less artificial, and in so far as it was purely literary was local and, as French critics are never tired of saying, insular. It certainly did not lack erudition. Southey's learning was prodigious, not to mention Coleridge. But it felt so much more than it reflected, its natural force was so far too great for its intelligence, that, like the society that surrounded it, it lay quite outside of the current of ideas as such; it is questionable if Wordsworth would not have belittled Goethe all the same even if he had read him.

Nothing, as we have said, could better illustrate a very interesting literary problem such as the one we have barely suggested, than a study of Southey, who, in many respects, exactly typifies the time of which he was "the only existing entire man of letters." Mr. Dowden has preferred to ignore any such examination. Of 197 pages he devotes barely ten to "Southey's Work in Literature." His estimate is, in the main, just enough, it seems to us; it could hardly go wrong, since at this date the most enthusiastic of biographers must feel that Southey's work in literature was neither brilliant nor enduring upon the whole; it reverses one detail of most former judgments, by the way, and places Southey's prose above his poetry, which is certainly right, considering how much of the latter was rhymed prose, and hence naturally less satisfactory than professed prose. But it stops here and has nothing to say upon the point which alone can be interesting in a criticism of Southey, and which must occur to every one who now takes up a book about him—namely, why his vogue was once so great and why it has now disappeared. Even if it were in and for itself that his work is interesting we should have looked for a more detailed consideration than is here given it, and for a fuller exposition, since the series in which the book appears is designed "with a view both to stirring and satisfying an interest in literature and its great topics in the minds of those who have to run as they read." How many of the readers thus specified know, for example, what 'Thalaba' or 'The Curse of Kehama' is all about? All others must be content with learning from Mr. Dowden that the former is an Arabian and the other an Indian epic.

Nevertheless it is of course Southey's life rather than his works which in itself has any lesson or interest for us. "We have left his old political landmarks miles and miles behind," to quote Thackeray again; "we protest against his dogmatism; nay, we begin to forget it and his politics; but I hope his life will not be forgotten, for it is sublime in its simplicity, its energy, its honor, its affection," and so on, as was Thackeray's wont when he had a man of letters of Southey's sort with whom to contrast a prince of the stripe of George IV. This is the view Mr. Dowden has taken; he would probably agree that "Southey's private letters are worth piles of epics," and he is not only never tired of singing the praises of Southey's sterling qualities, but is so full of appreciation for them that his utterance is at times awkward and embarrassed by an apparent distrust of his power of adequate expression. The difficulty with a literary biography of such a subject is that it is apt to be monotonous and somewhat tame. Fortunately there are good men in other walks of life, but their goodness does not lead to biographies of 200 pages; and where that is a man's sole title, or, since criticism has grown so frank, we may add even his main title, to a "life," it is soon told. "Had he been a worse or a weaker man," his present biographer acknowledges, "we might look to find mysteries, picturesque vices, or engaging follies; as it is, everything is plain, straightforward, substantial." But this circumstance does not prevent Mr. Dowden from trying to clothe this "plain, straightforward, substantial" life with the charms of poetry and sentiment, which is the chief vice of his book. Southey's pillow was "wet with tears before he fell asleep" on his first night at school, which, as is justly observed, "is usually not a time of mirth"; but he went to Westminster with "an imagination stored with the marvels and the beauty of old romance," and among other things he read Gibbon, and "viewed for the first time the sweep, the splendor, the coils, the mighty movement of the stream of human affairs," and even "caught some of Voltaire's manner of poignant irony." Though he was at Oxford an enthusiastic young republican and disciple of Rousseau, it is mentioned that "never was his life emptied of truth and meaning, and made in the deepest degree phantasmal by a secret shame lurking under a fair show." He fell in with Epictetus, and "now was heard the voice of a conscience speaking to a conscience; the

manner of speech was grave, unfigured, calm," etc. In June, 1794, "the shuttles of the fates now began to fly faster, and the threads to twist and twine," which means that Coleridge and Southey met. "One or two friends he chose and grappled to his heart." Then we hear plenty about Pantisocracy, which soon comes however, to "look faint and far," and in its stead "by love and by poetry, by Edith Fricker and by Joan of Arc, Southey's life was being shaped." He "was drawing a long breath before uttering himself in some thousands of blank verses." As to Joan of Arc, "in six weeks his epic had been written; its revision occupied six months." Southey's departure for Lisbon leads to the enquiry, "Who has not experienced, when first he has touched a foreign soil, how nature purges the visual nerve with lucky euphrasy?" Mr. Dowden continues in this vein until, as "Skiddaw gloomed solemnly overhead," he lays Southey to rest in the Crosthwaite churchyard. His own style, the reader will have perceived, is anything but "simple and straightforward," and in a book about Robert Southey it seems curiously out of place. Southey was certainly, intellectually speaking, as commonplace a man of letters as ever lived; though he was a thorough sentimentalist, he never went beyond the bounds of wholesomeness; though he was at one time an ardent radical, a very few years sufficed to make a Tory Churchman of him; he never had any doubt that posterity would reward him for what he thought contemporary neglect, but his self-confidence was of a placid sort and wholly different from the conceit of genius; "Mr. Southey," says Hazlitt, "missed his way in Utopia; he has found it at old Sarum." To write about such a man in a heightened and heroic style is to intensify rather than diminish the obvious slightness of material which would in a measure handicap the best biographer of Southey. Mr. Dowden has evidently had 'The Life of Sterling' in mind; but there are not two such books as that written in a generation, and he not only lacks the genius to elevate a commonplace theme but he does not here prove himself skilful in the ordinary journeyman work of biography. Either he conceived his task as far more tremendous than in truth it was, or he was not content to adjust his pace to the slow and somewhat lumbering movement of his subject.

ADAMS'S 'RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.'

BY this very attractive little volume Mr. Adams has increased the obligations the public owes him for the many aids he has furnished to the comprehension of railway problems. The stories of railway accidents are in themselves fascinating in a terrible way, and when they are not only graphically told, but grouped with reference to the causes and the cure, the reader feels that he is assisting at a scientific consultation on a subject which affects the safety of himself and his neighbors. The thrilling interest of the strange incidents of train disasters has added to it the zest of a worthy intellectual exercise of investigation, and what might be sensational reading if the narratives stood alone is dignified by the clear purpose of humanity and progress with which the book is written, so that we have the attractiveness of a novel with the value of a work of science. It ought to be universally read, for its general reading would fix public sentiment so firmly in regard to the more necessary and feasible additions to the safety of railway travel that these would be hastened, and not have to await the lesson of human destruction which has uniformly been the inseparable antecedent of such progress hitherto. The sad moral of this group of true stories is that nothing but a terrible train-wreck, with a long list of killed and maimed, has proved enough to overcome the inertia of mechanical habits of constructing and operating trains, the "practical man's" scorn of theoretic improvements, and the penny-wise dread of expensive changes.

Mr. Adams wisely illustrates the achieved successes before demonstrating the need of others which must follow. The old horrors of "telescoping," which led to the introduction of the Miller platform and coupler; the slaughters like the terrible one at Revere, Mass., which led to the abandonment of the old habit of "running by schedule"; and the long list of accidents by reason of the inefficiency of the means of stopping trains quickly, which forced the adoption of the automatic train-brakes, on the Westinghouse and similar plans, are skilfully arrayed to show that inventive talent is equal to the demand upon it, and that the way to still greater perfection of the wonderful machine of modern travel is perfectly open, if only the will to have it is created. The "battle of the brakes" is still going on in England; but in this country it has been decided, and

* Notes on Railway Accidents. By Charles Francis Adams, Jr. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 12mo, pp. 371.

the victory won for the simple yet admirable system which puts the control of the brakes on every truck of the longest train completely in the hand of the engineer upon the locomotive, and we have to reflect a little to recall the time before the days of the Miller coupler, when our passenger trains were jerked by the "taking up the slack" of the old coupling-links as only freight-trains now are.

The reduction in the number of deaths and injuries to travellers by these improvements is strongly brought out in the book before us, and is made the text for unanswerable arguments in favor of the steps in progress which lie next before us. These are the interlocking and the electric-signal systems. Interlocking means the bringing together the switch-levers and signals at one point in the railway station, so that all switching may be done by one will and one intelligent direction, whilst the mechanical connection of the apparatus is such that the signals of safety or danger shall be automatically connected with the proper or improper position of the switches. Everybody knows that one of the common causes of railway accidents is the misplaced switch, but everybody has not had the opportunity to study the confusing movement of trains, especially at night, in a busy railway "yard" near a great station. The switching or shunting of freight-cars from one track to another in the "making up" of trains or the "setting out" of particular cars, the dodging about of the "pony" engines, the swinging of the colored lamps at the arms of the semaphores, the glow-worm motion of the switchmen going from point to point, the flashing in and out of passenger trains, all combine to produce a complication utterly bewildering to the inexperienced observer.

Mr. Adams makes use of the interlocking system as operated at the great Cannon Street station in London as proof of the practicability and the safety of this plan. There the business amounts to the astonishing total of over six hundred and fifty trains received and despatched in twenty-four hours, and as most of these are despatched in a few hours in the morning and evening, they often number one per minute. All these are managed from a gallery like that of the bridge on a steamship, and with a success and freedom from accident which is certainly most convincing. But it is not only at great stations that interlocking is necessary and useful. One of the most common and simple instances of a railway junction is that of two double-track roads connecting in one main line. The fact is pointed out that in this case there must be two switch-levers and four signal-levers which would admit of sixty-four possible combinations. Of these sixty-four combinations only thirteen are safe, and the rest are such as might lure an engine-driver to destruction. It needs no argument that an automatic interlocking arrangement would even in this case add greatly to the safety of the public.

The electric-signal system is intended to notify approaching trains of the condition of switches and of connections in time to avoid danger, and to notify the public, at points where common highways cross the track, of the approach of trains. In regard to both of these improvements we have the old story of the "practical man" objecting to the delicacy and complication of the apparatus, to its trustworthiness, to all automatic action, exactly as in the cases of the train-brakes and the telegraphic handling of trains. Mr. Adams sums up the arguments in a very effective way, and shows, as we think, very satisfactorily that the time has come when this new step in advance should be taken. When this shall have been done, and the block system also adopted, by which but one train is allowed upon given sections of the track at one time, the dangers from the working of the machine as a whole will perhaps be reduced to the minimum. There will still remain those dangers which grow out of lack of discipline among employees and from criminal negligence or malice, which transcend the bounds of systematic prevention. But even as the system stands, it is a cheering and reassuring thing to read the chapter on the railway death-rate, in which it is proved, from the most trustworthy of the domestic and foreign statistics, that scarce any occupation in life shows so small a percentage of hazard to the individual, from causes beyond his control, as travelling on a first-class railway train. A comparison, no less forcible for being half comical, is made between the whole number of deaths in the community from various causes. The number of human beings killed on the rail is less than those killed from falling down-stairs, from falling out of windows, from being scalded to death, from being run over by teams in the streets, from coasting on sleds, from clothing catching fire, or from playing cricket!

One of the most interesting features of the book is the comparison between accidents occurring in this country and in Europe, and the management of railways on the respective sides of the ocean. Its examples are drawn liberally from English and French experience as well as American, and are full of valuable information not easily reached by the Amer-

ican reader in the original sources. It does not, however, profess to be an exhaustive treatise on the prevention of railway accidents, and is limited to those things of widest influence on the safety of passengers, which may be systematized and cared for in a few definite methods. We need a similar work upon accidents to the employees of railroads, especially those to which the conductors and brakemen of freight-trains are most liable. The possible application of the train-brake to freight-trains and the adoption of a reliable self-coupler for freight-cars are among the further improvements of railway appliances to which we hope Mr. Adams may at some future time contribute as powerfully as this excellent volume has done to the spread of sound views on the topics he has so well handled in it.

Tennyson's Songs with Music. Edited by W. G. Cusins. (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1880.)—The table of contents of this elegant volume offers an apparently choice collection of Tennyson's songs, and the names of composers like Hatton, Pinsuti, Macfarren, Leslie, Sir Julius Benedict, Blumenthal, Arthur Sullivan, Randegger, Cowen, Tours, and other well-known English writers, and of Raff, Liszt, Henschel, Joachim, Saint-Saëns, Gounod, Scharwenka, and Massenet justify the reader in expecting a rich treat. The book opens with "The Sea Fairies," a long two-part song by Barnett, well written and pleasing. This is followed by "Love that hath us in the net," to a rather mechanical and meaningless setting by Hatton. "The Death of the Old Year," a simple song and chorus, by Jackson, fails to hold the attention, and we pass on to an unnatural and uninspired four-part song by the editor Cusins, to the words "Of old sat Freedom." On the other hand, Pinsuti's setting of the "Miller's Daughter" is fresh and pretty, though reminding one of Schumann's "Nussbaum" and "Dis Wiegenlied" of Richard Wagner. Walter Macfarren's "All along the valley" is musicianly, but somewhat mechanical and dry. Let the reader compare this song with Op. 86, No. 6 of Mendelssohn. Of "Merlin's Song," by Joachim, it is difficult to speak; there may be a few singers who could enjoy it. The four-part song, "The Golden Year," is a good and characteristic composition from the pen of Henry Leslie. The piece is well worked out and has a very effective ending. "The Sailor-Boy," which follows, is a doleful ditty by Cusins, relieved somewhat by the strange and effectively-written song by Sir Julius Benedict, entitled "A Farewell." Henschel next gives us a setting to the familiar "Break, break, break," and it is fine. One of the few good songs of the book, "The Poet's Song," by Parry, attracts by its tender sentiment and musical conception. Next comes the "Milkmaid's Song," by Stanford. This is a well-written production, which could be made effective if carefully sung, but it lacks the simplicity and naïveté which the poem bespeaks. There is something very disturbing in the second line of the first and second stanzas. The well-known poem of "The Brook," with the music by Cusins, is a disappointment. Compare this song with No. 2 of the "Schöne Müllerin" of Franz Schubert. Cusins also furnishes the music to the male part-song which follows next in order—"The Song of King Arthur's Knights." This composition has bright effects and a good ending, but is also harsh in places.

Many of the songs already noticed are either sad or suggestive of sadness, and the tendency becomes more and more prominent as we go on. In this vein is "Vivien's Song," by Emily Troup, followed by "The Lute Song" of Stanford in empty chords of D minor. The sadness grows apace. And now comes Blumenthal with every other stanza crying "Let me die, let me die!" in the characteristic and most conventional strains of this popular writer. One sighs for a bar or two of fresh melody. But no! Again the editor himself joins the dismal procession with a monotonous and doleful setting of the words "As through the land at eve we went," and a first-rate song by Barnby is well nigh robbed of its effect by its unfortunate juxtaposition. However, the "Sleep, Ellen Aubrey," which follows, is a sweet, simple song by Goldschmidt, and at the sight of the really charming rendering of "Sweet and low" by Harold Thomas the reader draws a long breath of relief. The song is natural and spontaneous, in refreshing contrast to most of the overwrought attempts thus far. After a simple, pretty, and unoriginal cradle song by Manns, we are plunged again into the waves of despair. "Tears, idle tears" has two settings from Raff. Though in their breadth of treatment often suggesting the orchestra, these two songs—especially the first—are dolorous to the last degree. We find no relief in the "Bugle Song" of Sir Herbert Oakley, because it says nothing; neither is the martial song of Berger, "Thy voice is heard through rolling drums," sufficient to rally us from the mood to which the dejected strains of "Ask me no more," by Florence Marshall, are appropriate. Cowen's

setting of "O swallow, swallow, flying south!" fortunately comes to the rescue with its bright, fresh, pretty melody and accompaniment, but why Franz Liszt should have thus treated "Go not, happy day" it is difficult to tell. And what a pity Cummings could not have hit upon some other selection than the sad "Edith's Song," and greater pity that his song should lead to such a vanishing point both of meaning and expression! Next comes John Hullah with a funereal "Come not when I am dead"; then Randegger with "Home they brought her warrior dead"—a finely-written song, which cannot, however, possibly be appreciated among so many other gloomy compositions. A bit of sunshine is let in by Gounod's characteristic "Ring out, wild bells." Then follows the "St. Agnes Eve" of Arthur Sullivan, a warm, spontaneous composition, but withal somewhat conventional in construction. It has very effective vocal points and a nice descriptive accompaniment. Such an exquisite poem as "Now sleeps the crimson petal" deserves something better than a prosy setting by Huefner. The song by Massenet to the words "Come into the garden, Maud" is, if not the best song in the book, one of the best. The well-known ditty by Balfe should now be shelved. Massenet's setting is fresh and piquant, and there is a charming suggestiveness in his selecting the first, second, and fourth stanzas of this rather long poem. We should have been grateful to the editor if he had omitted just here his own heavy song, placed directly between Massenet and an interesting composition by Scharwenka. A capital song, indeed the best of the songs by English composers, is "O sun that wakenest!" by Fred. Corder. The manly ring and genuine sentiment of this song stand in refreshing contrast to the excessive sentimentality of the generality of English writers. The form of Corder's song, too, is excellent. Saint-Saëns contributes a most interesting song, "A Voice of the Cedar-tree," a thoroughly graceful composition with which it would have been well to end the book. At least the doleful, expressionless "Edward Gray" of Sullivan is wholly out of place. But "Enid's Song," by Silas, is bright and pretty; and the closing song of the book, "Our enemies have fallen," is ingeniously worked out by Berthold Tours, though we do not know what could induce anybody to sing it. In fact, most of the composers in this work are notably and unfortunately not at their best.

In conclusion, we cannot think the idea a happy one which suggested to Mr. Cusins a musical compilation of so many of Tennyson's poems. The poet does not gain anything, to say the least, by this grouping of them, while most of the composers seem to have written under some subtle constraint. In any event, the permanent impression left by a careful perusal of this work is the reverse of cheering—a result which seems to defeat the very object and mission of music.

Camp and Cabin: Sketches of Life and Travel in the West. By Rositer W. Raymond. (New York: Fords, Howard & Hurlbert.)—Of these sketches all have been printed in various periodicals within the past eight or nine years; three are descriptions of the Yellowstone country and other Western "scenery," and the preface asks the reader to bear in mind the date at which they first appeared in order to allow for their "fresh enthusiasm"; and the remaining three are short stories, one being of New England and the other two of Western life. The volume altogether is a 16mo of 243 pages, of which the stories at least will be found a good deal more entertaining than most of their sort. They have the one necessary qualification of short stories, interest namely, in an eminent degree; but they are also cleverly done and are of some real value as portraiture of the types and life they attempt to depict. That entitled "Agamemnon" is very much the best, and it is admirable; the O'Ballyhan is in idea almost as good as Thackeray's Costigan, though, of course, his delineation is slight and shadowy in comparison; and the hero is charmingly unique, and not much the less real withal. "Thanksgiving Joe" is more distinctly sentimental, and "The Widow Baker" rather mechanical; so that both lose in force. The defect which the three share, and which we imagine would be inseparable from anything Mr. Raymond should write, and would thus weight any attempt of his to produce something ambitious and important, is a persistent optimism which operates fatally to verisimilitude. This is a great pity, but it is nothing new, and to blink it, as the evident merits of his work tempt one to do, is only to lose sight of the wide difference between serious fiction and agreeable romancing. Mr. Raymond is evidently one of those who believe in reforming Sunday-school literature, rendering it less "unwholesome"; substituting some fidelity of local color for its sickly imaginings, and introducing a blast of fresh air to dissipate its vapors. Nevertheless after all this tonic treatment it

still remains Sunday-school literature in the hands of such writers as Mr. Raymond; it is just as false as if it had not lost its moral. Thanksgiving Joe is altogether too good to be believed in, as are most of his fellow-miners, and as are nearly all the personages of the other stories. The circumstance that the dialect is excellent and natural, the incidents probable, and the narrative simply told, is only an added aggravation to any one who believes it to be the province of fiction to deal with life as it is. Writers who so deal with it are by this time, we may hope, no longer called cynics; and writers who do not are justly suspected of a sentimentality which may be of a good or a bad sort but which is born of an *arriré-pensée* of some kind or other, or of an inability to observe deeply and clearly and free themselves of any responsibility in the matter. Bret Harte, for example, whom Mr. Raymond's stories recall, sins in this respect; his moral, that morality is independent of conventions, always lies near the surface; and we could not select a better instance to illustrate our meaning. Mr. Raymond's pictures are very agreeable, but they should not be mistaken for portraits.

History and Poetry of Finger Rings. By Chas. Edwards, Counsellor-at-Law. (New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1880. 12mo, 234 pp.)—The title of this book would seem to indicate that it was the history of ornament, but it is something more than that. It commences with the announcement that the time when a ring was first fashioned and worn cannot be ascertained, and the reader is cautioned against mistaking "rings" for "ring money," which was used by the Egyptians and ancient Britons. The mythology of the subject is first treated, and then classical illustrations are given of a most interesting kind, which prove that the man with the gold ring was not always the one, even in classical times, who occupied the enviable position. There is scarcely any substance of which rings have not been made. Some of the oldest were of iron, and at first were worn by conquerors only. Gold was, however, one of the first metals used for this purpose, and was preferred to silver. Rings made wholly of stone without any metal, such as the carnelian rings that are found among Egyptian remains, were used by the higher classes, while the common people wore rings of blue porcelain and bone. The Romans were for a very long time content with iron. At length they became so common that bushels of them were taken in the spoils of Cannæ. Their first use was as signets; such an Egyptian ring is mentioned, the value of the gold contained in which was £20 sterling. Among the Romans they were used only as signets, and were not at first adorned with stones. They were worn by them on either hand, but when stones were employed it was considered foppish to wear them on the right. The Hebrews, however, wore their rings on the right hand only. The Greeks and Romans, according to Aulus Gellius, wore them on the fourth finger of the left hand, because this finger was supposed to have a nerve leading directly to the heart, but other authors who were less romantic say that they were so worn because the left hand was less used than the right, and the stones of the ring were on this account less likely to be broken. At first the Romans wore only one ring, then one on each finger, and then several, at least one on each joint of the finger. The practice of wearing a ring on the fourth finger is supposed to have originated from the fact of this finger being called the "medicus," because the old physicians used to stir their potions with it, supposing that no venom could stick to it. They were in the habit of wearing rings on this finger containing certain essential oils as charms. The Egyptian priests, on account of the belief of its having a nerve leading directly to the heart, used to anoint this finger with precious oils before the altar.

At the present day in Persia the authenticity of documents of all kinds depends upon the signet. This makes the occupation of a seal-cutter a very responsible one. He is obliged to keep a record of every ring he makes, and the alarm of an Oriental whenever he loses his signet ring can be imagined, since the use of it is equivalent to the use of the signature with us. The language of rings must have been a very costly luxury, but little is left of it at the present time, and this consists mostly of the use of rings on certain fingers to indicate engaged or married ladies. The ring has always been an emblem of power. Pharaoh gave his to Joseph as a sign of authority. From very ancient times rings were buried on the hands of royal personages to indicate their rank. In ancient Rome even senators were not at first allowed to wear them. They have always been used, however, among Christian nations in the consecration of bishops as a symbol of the spiritual authority conferred on them at that time. They were very early used as amulets and charms, either with engravings of cabalistic power or set with gems, to which all kinds of virtues were

attached. Such rings were frequently worn by royal persons to counteract the effects of poison which might be administered to them. They were more frequently worn as charms against disease, and this superstition is still extant.

The fourth chapter of the book is full of historical incidents. Every one knows of the ring given by Elizabeth to Essex. Few rings have such a romantic place in history, but there are many other historical narratives related here about which just as much romance could easily be woven. The author closes his dactylothea with the rings of love, affection, and friendship. The references with which the work abounds will enable those who wish to make a more careful study of the subject to do so at their leisure. A complete index makes a reference to any part of the treatise easy. It is pleasantly written, and cannot fail both to amuse and instruct any one who will spend upon it the few hours required to read it.

Glints from over the Water. By P. B. Cogswell. (Concord, New Hampshire: Published by the Author. 1880.)—The thing which most struck this traveller wherever he cast his eyes in Great Britain, France, Germany, Greece, the East, or in Egypt was the superiority of his own country: no lake is equal to Winnepiseogee, no business thrift or ability is equal to the Yankee's, and so on; he even says boldly he did "not covet Leo XIII. his pontifical chair, and would not exchange situations with him if he would give as boot all Satan offered Christ on the mountain." But, notwithstanding this somewhat obtrusive boasting, the volume is a good gauge of the observing powers of most Americans who go abroad, and a fair indication of what knowledge and experience they bring back with them. The author went to the Paris Exposition and wrote letters from there and from the other countries he visited during his year's tour to a Concord newspaper, and it is these letters which he has revised and gathered into this large volume. The revision might have been more thorough, for there are many things worth saying in a letter to a New Hampshire newspaper which are not worth repeating in a book; indeed, the larger part of this volume might have been omitted without loss. There are some errors, too, which have escaped his notice: the statement that in France "there are no farms apparently owned by the peasantry" is surprising even in a newspaper reader, if we remember the amount of attention peasant proprietorship in France has received in this country; so, too, the laying the destruction of the Parthenon to the account of Turkish shells is wrong, and the location of the Olympian games within less than a mile of the Acropolis of Athens is novel; in general the author is unsafe on archaeological ground. In artistic matters, too, he occasionally stumbles, and although he tries hard to respect the old masters it seems to go against the grain. The sight of the pictures in the Doge's Palace at Venice, for example, leads him to point out a "peculiarity about the pictures painted by many Italian artists from the fourteenth century down, and that is the similarity of subjects selected, and those confined principally to a few Scriptural subjects, the best of them counted by the ten fingers. It shows how little of original genius most of those artists possessed, except in varying details." He has the characteristic American regard for admirable things, but the conviction that he ought to worship conflicts with the knowledge that he doesn't, and the result is often a remarkable attempt at humor, especially when he is at places made memorable by literary associations. Thus, at Avignon he remembers the romance of Petrarch and Laura, but the reflection which rises to his mind is that if all attachments were so lasting there would be fewer divorce cases.

But if Mr. Cogswell occasionally leaves something to be desired in archæology, history, art, and humor, he had more success in dealing with the practical concerns of the countries he visited, and he has written a few instructive pages about them; these are the most valuable portion of the book, and, although the information in them is to be found elsewhere perhaps more easily, they will be useful to whoever has patience to hunt for them through four hundred and fifty octavo pages. The one conclusion which may be safely drawn from the book is that Americans possessing Mr. Cogswell's intellectual equipment are distinctly injured by European travel. They are far more valuable and interesting men before they start than after they get back.

The Genealogist's Guide to Printed Pedigrees: Being a general search through genealogical, topographical, and biographical works relating to the United Kingdom, together with references to family histories, peerage claims, etc. By George W. Marshall, LL.D., of the Middle Temple, barrister-at-law. (London: George Bell & Sons. 1879. 8vo, pp. 514.)

—The title fully describes this very useful index to such English genealogies as are in print. Moule's 'Bibliotheca Heraldica' was perhaps the earliest descriptive list of such works; but since the date of its issue, 1822, family histories have multiplied exceedingly. Of his other predecessors, such as Bridger, Coleman, Marshall, and Sims, the author writes: "Their collective contents will be found in these pages, together with more than double the number of references they contain. The late Mr. Bridger, indeed, whose work is the largest of them all, estimated, in his preface, his references at sixteen thousand; those in this volume are estimated at nearly three times that number." It would be useless to try to give examples of the thoroughness of the work. The names are arranged alphabetically, with the references under each. These references seem to comprise all the standard county histories, Burke's 'Commoners,' and similar books, leaving out, however, peerages and baronetages. Very few American genealogies are cited, those used, indeed, being selected on some occult system which we cannot understand. Thus, the elaborate work on the Brights of Suffolk is not cited, although it is almost entirely devoted to the English family; yet on the preceding page the Briggs genealogy is quoted, which is distinctively American. Probably the author's good-nature led him to insert such titles as his own notes or library supplied. Doubtless there will be found some errors or omissions, but a book of this kind is of the greatest possible assistance to the antiquary. Every item represents so many minutes or hours of useless search saved to the investigator. Mr. Marshall is favorably known as the editor of the *Genealogist*, the only magazine devoted to the subject in England; the publication of this 'Guide' will increase his reputation at home and in this country.

Studies on Fermentation: the Diseases of Beer, their causes and the means of preventing them. By L. Pasteur. Translated by Frank Faulkner and D. Constable Robb, B.A. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—The original of this work ('Études sur la Bière') appeared some three years ago, containing the last results of many years of laborious research, and was at once a valuable contribution to our knowledge of fermentation and a hand-book for the intelligent brewer. For a quarter of a century this illustrious chemist has been one of the most brilliant experimenters in this department of science, and his numerous papers read before the French Academy have kept his name prominently before the scientific world, but his 'Études sur le Vin,' published in 1866, 'Études sur le Vinaigre,' a little later, his 'Études sur la Pébrine,' or silkworm disease, and other papers of immediate practical import, have given him perhaps even greater fame in the industrial world.

The causes and nature of fermentation have probably—save the dogma of evolution—been the subject of more sharp discussion and bitter controversy than any other question under modern scientific investigation. It has a biological and a chemical side, each involving a group of abstruse questions only to be solved by the most ingenious and exact experiment. Moreover, the practical and economical questions related to it are particularly numerous and varied, from the making of "our daily bread" to the foundation of great industries like brewing and the canning of foods; then, too, it has its relations to diseases, and to great chemical processes in nature, all of which give an especial importance to the study of its phenomena. The work before us is concerned primarily with a purely practical question in the arts, the solution of which involves principles of far wider application. Every one who makes bread, be it housewife or professional baker, knows that good bread is not and cannot be made at every trial, no amount of care or skill or empirical knowledge being sufficient to secure uniformity of excellence. This is even more true of beer than of bread, and this uncertainty of result is of vastly greater pecuniary importance than is even dreamed of by any one not acquainted with the facts and figures. An English authority says: "Probably no industry—saving agriculture—employs so large an amount of capital as that of brewing and the various industries supported by it." The income of all this investment has heretofore had an element of uncertainty because of the "diseases" to which beer is subject in the brewing. In spite of the greatest care and skill, some brewings would become diseased and the quality impaired. This accident was liable to happen in the best regulated breweries, and with it came a loss, direct or indirect, to the manufacturer. No other great industry is subject to an uncertainty of this kind, and most of the changes which have lately been introduced into brewing at an expense of very many millions of dollars, and which have practically revolutionized the methods of manufacture within the last few years, have aimed at increasing the uniformity of result rather than im-

proving the quality or cheapening the production of good beer, as represented by the best brewings.

Before this special investigation there was no philosophical explanation of the causes of sick beer, and no way of entirely averting the loss to the manufacturer. The researches but prove the fact which the astute experimenter had before suspected and suggested—that the “diseases” are produced by the presence of special disease-ferments during the process of brewing. The substance of his conclusions is that “every unhealthy change in the quality of beer coincides with a development of microscopic germs which are alien to the pure ferment of beer,” and the converse that “the absence of change in wort and beer coincides with the absence of foreign organisms.” To the scientific man and the general reader the direct practical question, the solution of which M. Pasteur was seeking, is of far less interest than what is incidental to it in this volume—the ingenious methods by which the facts were proved, the different phases and conditions of fermentation studied, the light thrown on other related phenomena, and the suggestiveness of many of his experiments and conclusions. The question of the origin of ferment organisms is again discussed, and the hypothesis of the spontaneous generation (so called) of septic ferments again receives the hard blows of the author. He tells us in his preface that “our misfortunes inspired me with the idea of these researches,” which were undertaken just after the disastrous Franco-German war of 1870, and he determined that French brewing should not only be put on an equality with that of Germany, but should surpass it in uniformity of excellence. But science is cosmopolitan, and already the microscope for the determination of disease-ferments has become as common in the German and English breweries as in those of France.

This English edition is more than a mere translation. It is revised and brought down to date, and a number of new original illustrations are added to those reproduced from the French. The publishers have left little to complain of in the matter of printing or illustrations.

The World's Paradises. Sketches of Life, Scenery, and Climate in Noted Sanitaria. By S. G. W. Benjamin. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880. 18mo, pp. 228.)—Mr. Benjamin's style is nothing if not popular, and in this little “handy volume” one may find pleasant talk about a score of places more or less well known, from Damascus to Honolulu. Most of them Mr. Benjamin has himself visited; and from several of them he has brought away anecdotes and local touches which are new. The ground of his pleasant volume upon the Atlantic Islands is touched again, but not repetitiously—touched rather than trodden upon; and there are interesting chapters upon the Bosphorus and other Eastern localities with which Mr. Benjamin is familiar by residence. For the rest, one could wish that he had given ampler space to personal reminiscences. For the fastidious reader the fault of the book is that it leads one somewhat too persistently over the well-beaten tracks of description; but it was not written for the fastidious reader.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Amos (Prof. S.), Fifty Years of the British Constitution.....	(Little, Brown & Co.) \$3.00
Bedell (Rev. G. T.), The Pastor: Pastoral Theology.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 2.00
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Schiern (Prof. F.), Life of James Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell.....	(David Douglas)
Shaw (W. J.), Solomon's Story.....	(Peter G. Thomson) 1.75
Vincent (Rev. M. R.), Faith and Character.....	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1.50
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